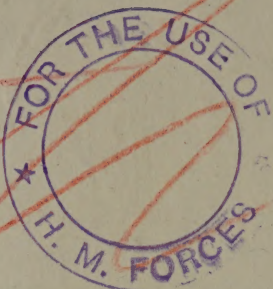


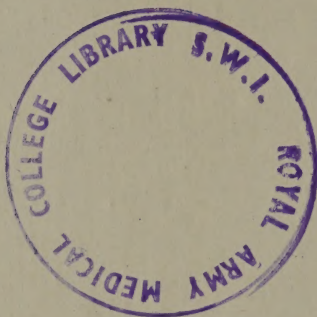
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ALBANIA

NAVAL INTELLIGENCE DIVISION



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'Skanderbeg'

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GEOGRAPHICAL HANDBOOK SERIES

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ALBANIA

AUGUST 1945

NAVAL INTELLIGENCE DIVISION

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PREFACE

IN 1915 a Geographical Section was formed in the Naval Intelligence Division of the Admiralty to write Geographical Handbooks on various parts of the world. The purpose of these Handbooks was to supply, by scientific research and skilled arrangement, material for the discussion of naval, military, and political problems, as distinct from the examination of the problems themselves. Many distinguished collaborators assisted in their production, and by the end of 1918 upwards of fifty volumes had been produced in Handbook and Manual form, as well as numerous short-term geographical reports. The demand for these books increased rapidly with each new issue, and they acquired a high reputation for accuracy and impartiality. They are now to be found in Service Establishments and Embassies throughout the world, and in the early years after the last war were much used by the League of Nations.

The old Handbooks have been extensively used in the present war, and experience has disclosed both their value and their limitations. On the one hand they have proved, beyond all question, how greatly the work of the fighting services and of Government Departments is facilitated if countries of strategic or political importance are covered by handbooks which deal, in a convenient and easily digested form, with their geography, ethnology, administration, and resources. On the other hand it has become apparent that something more is required to meet present-day requirements. The old series does not cover many of the countries closely affected by the present war (e.g. Germany, France, Poland, Spain, Portugal, to name only a few); its books are somewhat uneven in quality, and they are inadequately equipped with maps, diagrams, and photographic illustrations.

The present series of Handbooks, while owing its inspiration largely to the former series, is in no sense an attempt to revise or re-edit that series. It is an entirely new set of books, produced in the Naval Intelligence Division by trained geographers drawn largely from the Universities, and working at sub-centres established at Oxford and Cambridge, and is printed by the Oxford and Cambridge University Presses. The books follow, in general, a uniform scheme, though minor modifications will be found in particular cases; and they are illustrated by numerous maps and photographs.

The purpose of the books is primarily naval. They are designed first to provide, for the use of Commanding Officers, information in a comprehensive and convenient form about countries which they may be called upon to visit, not only in war but in peace-time; secondly, to maintain the high standard of education in the Navy and, by supplying officers with material for lectures to naval personnel ashore and afloat, to ensure for all ranks that visits to a new country shall be both interesting and profitable.

Their contents are, however, by no means confined to matters of purely naval interest. For many purposes (e.g. history, administration, resources, communications, &c.) countries must necessarily be treated as a whole, and no attempt is made to limit their treatment exclusively to coastal zones. It is hoped therefore that the Army, the Royal Air Force, and other Government Departments (many of whom have given great assistance in the production of the series) will find these Handbooks even more valuable than their predecessors proved to be both during and after the last war.

J. H. GODFREY

Director of Naval Intelligence

1942

The foregoing preface has appeared from the beginning of this series of Geographical Handbooks. It describes so effectively their origin and purpose that I have decided to retain it in its original form.

This volume has been prepared by the Oxford sub-centre of the Naval Intelligence Division under the direction of Lieut.-Colonel K. Mason, M.C., M.A., R.E., Professor of Geography in the University of Oxford, and is the work of a number of contributors, whose names are given on page 347.

E. G. N. RUSHBROOKE

Director of Naval Intelligence

AUGUST 1945

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

General

ALBANIA, with an area of a little less than 11,000 square miles, is roughly one and a half times the size of Wales. The population numbers roughly 1,045,000 or about half that of Wales, and the density of population is about 98 to the square mile.

The land itself, lying between the Dinaric Alps to the north and Pindus to the south, between the Macedonian highland to the east and the Adriatic to the west, is mountainous and difficult of access, even though it has the only green low-lying coastal plain in the whole stretch of the eastern Adriatic shore. Yet its boundaries are nowhere clearly marked, and merge, as do its peoples and its spoken language, into neighbouring countries.

In no other country of Europe could there be such difficulty of adequate description. Albania as a land and the Albanians as a people have a definite character all their own, but neither the one nor the other has been developed in a modern sense. Indeed Albania is less touched by western civilization, and more remote from the general life of the Continent, than any other country. It is the only Balkan land which has never been completely absorbed by a foreign conqueror, nor entirely lost the independence and self-government of its tribes, yet it remains the most oriental in character and mode of life. The ports, towns, communications, mineral resources, agriculture, central administration, and internal economy were non-existent or medieval in character up to and including the early years of this century. There has followed a brief period in which development has begun, and indeed grown fast, but under foreign guidance and for foreign ends. It is obvious that much of value has been done—in the spread of a good road system for example. It is equally obvious that much is now a matter of history only, as, for example, the Italian-framed administration. During the war chaos has again supervened. What presently emerges must depend mainly upon the Albanians themselves, whose views may well be diverse, and upon the help which disinterested peoples may be able to give. It cannot be forecast with any certainty. More purely, then, than any other handbook of this series, this volume must be concerned with man and his natural surroundings.

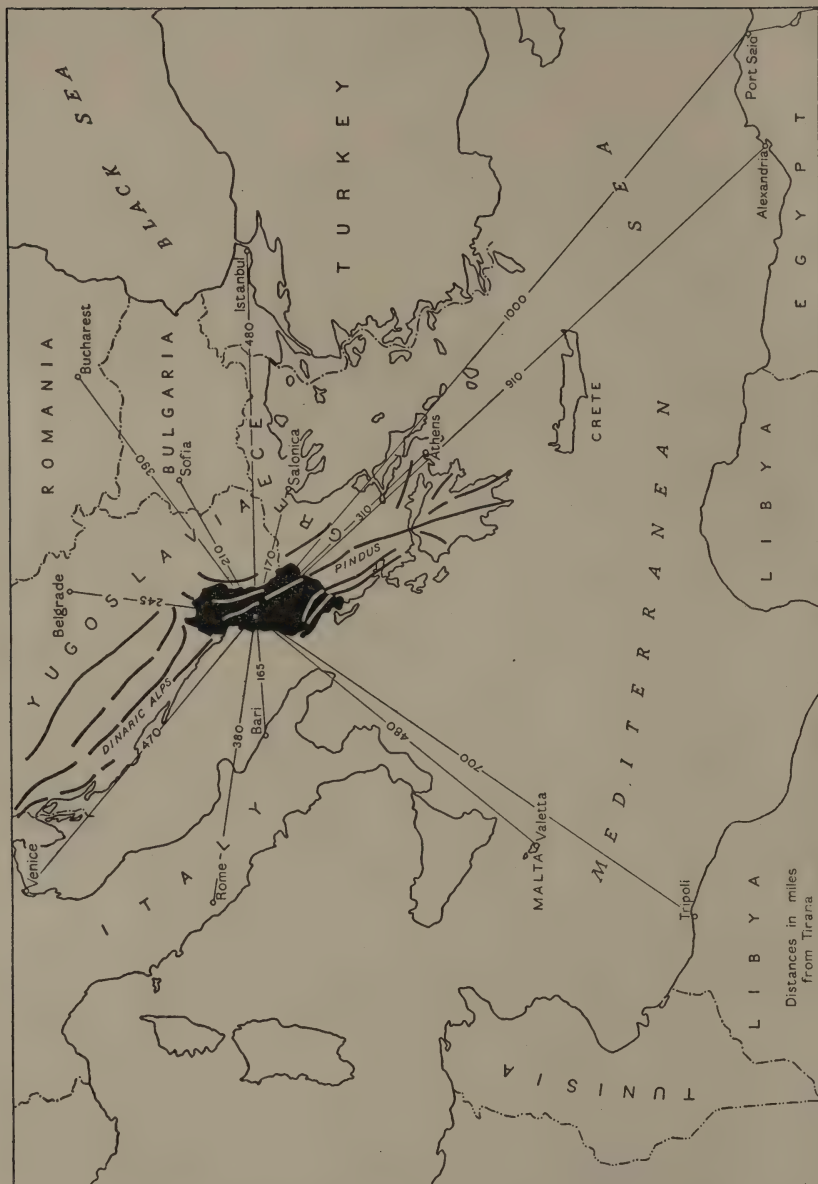


FIG. 1. Albania. Its position and some distances

THE COUNTRY

The western margin of the Balkan peninsula, between its watershed and the Adriatic, consists of a nearly continuous zone of folded mountain ranges, partially but abruptly submerged along their whole length into their structural foreland, the Adriatic trough. Northward these ranges are continuous with the Eastern Alps; southwards, shattered by earth movements, they diverge obliquely through peninsular Greece, enclosing Thessaly and several smaller lowlands, and traversing the sunken Archipelago in long promontories and island-chains. Within these West-Balkan ranges must be distinguished the northern *Dinaric* section, from the Julian Alps to the southern border of Montenegro, and the *Pindus* section southward to the Archipelago, though the name 'Dinaric' is often given generally to these two sections combined. Topographically the Dinaric folds mark the watershed between the Adriatic and the middle Danube, while Pindus separates the Ionian Sea from the Archipelago. But this is not quite precise, for between $42^{\circ} 30' \text{ N.}$ and $40^{\circ} 30' \text{ N.}$ the eastward drainage flows into the Aegean by the Bistritsa and the westward into the lower Adriatic by the rivers of Albania.

This qualification is in accord with the structure, and partly results from it. For along the old frontier between Albania and Montenegro, about $42^{\circ} 30' \text{ N.}$, the Dinaric zone, here about 150–200 miles wide, between the Adriatic and the crystalline mass which is west Serbia, is abruptly reduced to 60–80 miles by the westward projection of what is known as the *Macedonian highland* or *Pelagonian crust-block*, and extends southward to Olympus and beyond. Here consequently the folded ranges are more closely compressed, and their general trend veers from north-west-south-east to nearly north-south, especially near the crust-block. The actual point of distortion is, however, concealed by the wide karst plateau of Montenegro and the Albanian Alps, a limestone overfold (*nappe*) which is another effect of the same movement.

Consequently between the Dinaric ranges northward and the Greek highlands of Pindus southwards there is an intermediate region, in which sometimes older strata are up-thrust, as in the Mirditë highland, sometimes the whole mountain structure has foundered and is overlaid by later deposits. This intermediate region is large enough, and different enough structurally, to have a distinct topographical physiognomy, a distinct climate, and even a distinct history of its own; whereas both the Montenegrin plateau north of it and the

fractured highlands of Greek Epirus sink abruptly into deep sea, and have only small and discontinuous coast plains or silted river-valleys. It is this region which is Albania.

Physically Albania is a section of the Dinaric folded-mountain ranges, which are multiple, with a general trend from north-west to south-east, sinking into the Adriatic behind a series of alluvial coast-plains, and therefore without coastal island chains, though Valona bay, enclosed by C. Linguetta and Saseno island, repeats the type of coast characteristic of Dalmatia and Montenegro. Eastward the physical boundary is the watershed range of Šar planina in the north, and of Grammos and Pindus south of the lake-basins of Ochrida and Prespa; but between these ranges violent faults and the deeply eroded drainage have dissected the primary ridges into separate highland masses. The rivers indeed are as important lines of demarcation as the ranges, northern Albania being divided from central by the Shkumbî river, and central from southern by the Vjosë. Their courses, however, usually consist of longitudinal troughs between the mountain ranges, connected by narrow transverse gorges across them. Lake basins such as Ochrida, Prespa, Little Prespa, and Maliq in the interior, Scutari in the north-west, and Yannina in Epirus, result from cross-faulting and collapse; and Valona bay, the only considerable indentation of the coast, has a similar origin.

THE PEOPLE

Albanian isolation and the definite character and individuality that belongs to her are due more to her people than to her land-forms. Descended mainly from an ancient stock, to which Serb, Bulgar, and Turk are modern interlopers, the Albanians have been surrounded since classical times by warring peoples and creeds which have pressed hard upon them. Their only times of unity have come in desperate attempt to halt the invader. Had any lasting success attended these efforts, a central government might have brought peace, eliminated tribal quarrels, and developed the land. As it was, independence was maintained, and that precariously, only by the mountain tribes, whilst sectional strife was embittered by those three implacable creeds, Roman, Orthodox, and Moslem, recognized rather as the religions of different hereditary enemies than as unifying spiritual forces. Greeks colonized along Albanian coasts; Romans marched, fought, and ruled for a time; Bulgars and Serbs invaded and restricted her territory; Venice, for a while, was supreme in her harbours;

Turks held uneasy sway over much of her territory, replaced her village chiefs of the southern *Tosk* areas by land-owning *bey*s, and effectively stifled progress and education. In the present century the irreconcilable ambitions of Serbia and Italy, combined with the two great wars, have prevented development. Recognized at last, but not until 1913, as an independent state by the Great Powers, and lacking both the resources and the training for stable and progressive government, Albania fell first into financial dependency upon Italy, and later under her direct rule. All these matters of history are described in the chapter devoted to that subject, but it is impossible to understand the march of events in Albania without some outline also of the histories of those peoples whose ebb and flow in the Balkans have had such consequences for the Albanian people, and left so many problems behind. A special appendix is, therefore, devoted to Albania's neighbours.

Up to the end of last century no one but the Romans had built a good road in the country. The horse had not displaced the ox at the plough; the ages of coach roads, of macadam, and of railways had passed Albania by, and her social development was that of the Scottish Highlands before 1745. Practically speaking Albania had no literature of her own before the early years of this century, and the few books and manuscripts which did exist were handicapped by the absence of any recognized alphabet. Yet the language itself has survived, together with a national consciousness, even though the *Geg* dialects of the north differ from the *Tosk* of the south.

Administrative matters are dealt with in Chapter IX, but a description of administration can be historical only. There is, at this moment, none to describe. In Albania a well-organized and centralized government has never existed for long enough to become a habit. Not only does Albania remain the most oriental of all European countries, but administration more centralized than that of the tribe or village has always been imposed. Such tradition as precedes 1913 is that of an underpaid and venal officialdom, serving a remote, even if well-meaning, despot. A bright exception of recent times is to be found in the Gendarmerie, which, under British officers, won the respect and obedience of a people, loyal and honourable of purpose, which would soon respond to good government based upon its own individual liberties.

The political instinct of so warlike and, politically, immature a people was, naturally, for a leader rather than a parliament. Beginning her independence as a kingdom under a German prince, then

becoming a republic, it was as a kingdom again that Albania fell to invading Italy.

With such beginnings, and under such circumstances, the character of the people explains itself. Fierce, brave, and warlike; implacable to an enemy; courteous, hospitable, and open-handed to a stranger, they have all the usual characteristics of independent mountain tribes. In the absence of a common law they have followed, with natural conservatism, the tribal code of Lek Dukagjin. An eye for an eye and a tooth for a tooth is its guiding principle, and the blood-feud its recognized instrument. In villages and homesteads the deeds of Skanderbeg, the national hero, are still chanted in Homeric fashion.

While these characteristics apply to Albania as a whole, they are modified, by history and environment, in its various parts. The country may be divided into three. The North Albanian Highland—the Geg country—contains the most warlike folk and the purest tribal organization. South of that famous Roman highway the Via Egnatia, among the Tosks, Greek influence has been potent; organization is more by villages than by tribes, and the rule of Turkish beys was grafted easily enough upon it. So much does not imply that tribal thought and tradition are dead, but they are less active. Along the coast and reaching inland along the main rivers are people more mixed in origin, more malaria-ridden, and less independent-minded than the highlanders to the north-east and south-east of them. Yet, coming from all these parts, large Albanian minorities, in Yugoslavia, in Greece, in Italy, Sicily, and as far afield as the United States, preserve their national tongue in household use and treasure their common origin.

THE CLIMATE

Albania lies partly in the mid-European belt, with cold winters and hot summers, and partly in the Mediterranean belt, with equable temperature in winter and considerable heat in summer. The former is the climate of the North Albanian Highland, the latter of the coastal plain and the southern highlands. Owing to low-pressure systems in the Mediterranean and Adriatic, Albania has a good rainfall, spread throughout the year in the north but wholly lacking in summer in the south. As much of the country stands high, snow lies there in the winter. Violent winds, large variations of temperature, thunderstorms, and fair visibility are characteristic of the climate.

THE RESOURCES

Agriculture

The main occupations are agriculture and stock-farming. But both are still extremely primitive. The Albanian, per head of the population, grows less food than any other Balkan national, and his cattle have no proper winter feeding. Indeed agriculture, though it has a long history, requires considerable outlay in reclamation and drainage before it can take its proper place. Since half the country lies over 3,000 feet above the sea, and since the coastal plains, which are believed to be most fertile, are largely under marsh, agriculture is at present confined to the valleys and plains along the upper reaches of the rivers and in the lake basins. Once the plains are reclaimed and drained, Albania should produce food for export, whilst the elimination of malaria would follow upon the drainage. About 700 square miles of fertile land could be reclaimed.

The products of stock-farming used to cover, in pre-war times, 65 per cent. of the Albanian export trade. There were three million head of livestock (cattle, horses, mules, asses, sheep, and goats) using 3,300 square miles of pasture. But here, too, great improvements are possible, especially in adequate winter feeding.

Fisheries

Fish abound off the coast as well as in the lakes. Capital and technical equipment alone are lacking. The export of fish, before the war, was in terms of 300 tons.

Forestry

Some 3,600 square miles are well forested. Now that an adequate road system has been completed, an important timber industry might well emerge.

Minerals

Albania has mineral wealth, but it is difficult to assess. It is only of recent years that prospecting has been possible, or at any rate easy. Optimistic estimates have not been lacking, but must be accepted with caution. Chromite, cupriferous pyrites, and iron ore have been exploited, but not in a large way. Bitumen and petroleum are increasingly exported. As Albania is developed there is no doubt that production will rise, and that substantially, but there seems to be no real evidence of any great mineral wealth.

Water Power

Like so many Albanian resources, water power remains to be developed. Seldom, however, could prospects be so good. Albanian rivers, beginning almost always at over 3,000 feet, flow fast, and over short courses, to the sea. In her lakes Albania has admirable natural reservoirs. With reasonable development power should be available for the railways and industrial machinery of the future.

THE BOUNDARIES

The ideal boundary is an uninhabited and uninhabitable region, which at once provides security and separates peoples, whereas rivers, generally speaking, unite rather than divide. An ocean, a desert, or a vast mountain system such as the Himalayas is not generally available, however, and failing these, some well-marked physical line, such as a watershed, is normally chosen, with allowance for the economic factors which affect the peoples on either side. Thus a tribe is not normally divided from its grazing grounds, nor an agricultural area from its natural market. Where clear-cut physical features are absent, boundaries are judged largely on national majorities, and so it was in the case of Albania where they were settled in principle by the Council of Ambassadors in 1913, demarcated in 1923, and confirmed by the Paris Agreement of 1926. The epoch was an unfortunate one for Albania. The Serbs had, 1,200 years before, pushed over and colonized parts previously Albanian, lying to the north, north-east, and south-east of the official boundary. Then under Turkish rule the Albanians had returned as Moslems, and the Serbs were dispossessed. But on the break-up of Turkey the Serbs recolonized, many Albanians were slain, and many took refuge to the south and west. These events are recent enough to rankle. The boundary commission had to judge on the existing situation, although it pressed hardly on the normal economic life of many Albanians. This boundary is, however, the only possible one to adopt in writing of the country now (1944), in spite of the changes made during German and Italian occupation. These later changes, ostensibly made on historical grounds, were actually in favour of Italy at the expense of Yugoslavia. It has been stated officially, however, that the frontiers of Albania will have to be considered at the peace settlement. A short description of the 1923 boundary follows, but it, as well as the temporary 'Axis' boundary, is shown on the map in the end pocket, and both are easier to follow on a map than in prose.

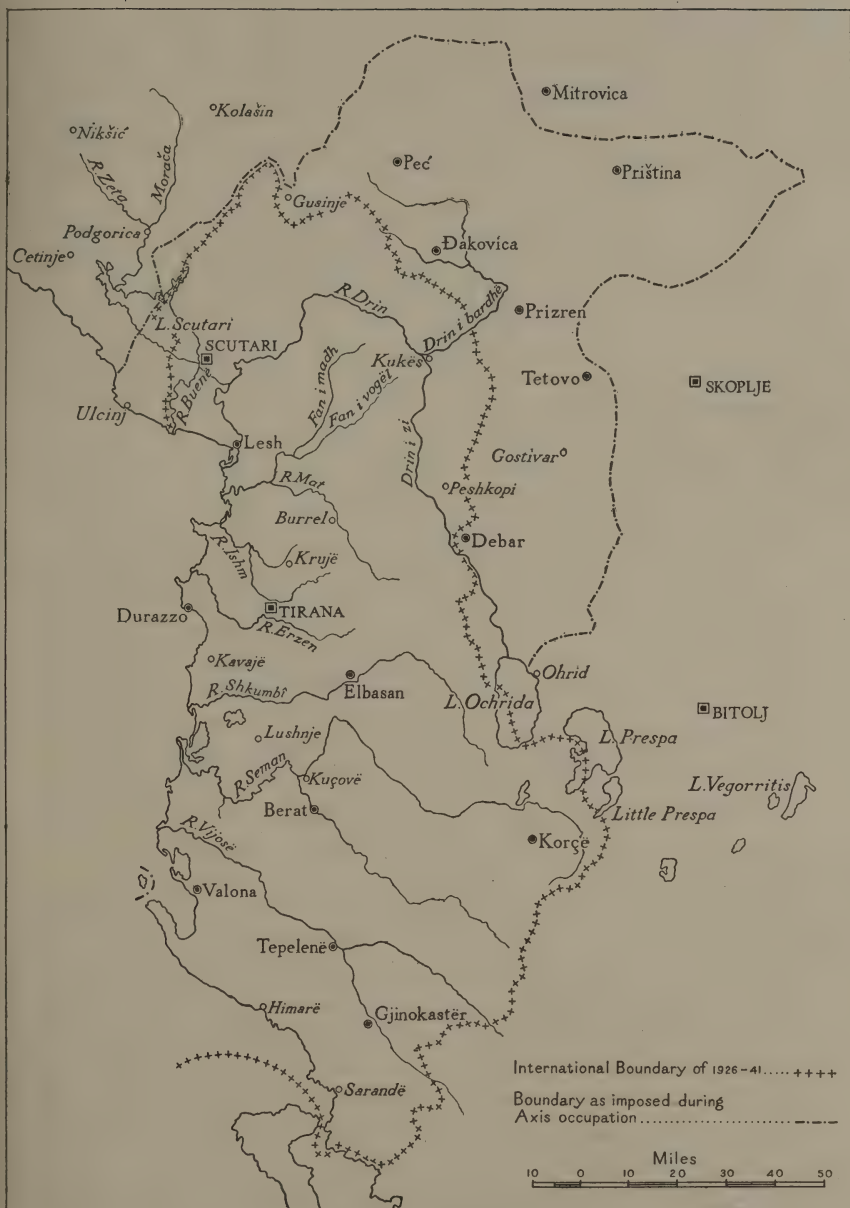


FIG. 2. *Boundaries*

The 1923 Boundary

The northern and eastern frontier with Yugoslavia (298 m.) follows the Boyana (*Alb.* Buenë) river from its mouth (lat. $41^{\circ} 52' N.$; long. $19^{\circ} 23' E.$) to Goricë; thence north to the shore of Lake Scutari 7 miles west of Scutari town; thence along the middle line of the lake and up the Hot inlet to its head.

Following the north-eastward ridges of the Albanian Alps, the Grudë tribe and part of Hoti are excluded, Kastrati and Kelmendi included; but the head of Vermosh valley is cut off, with the summer pastures of the local shepherds. At its most northerly point, M. e. Zhihovës (7,100 ft.) north of Vermosh, the frontier turns south to the main ridge near Qafë e Valbonës; thence north-east, excluding Gusinje and Plava; thence round the northern foothills of M. Kerrshi e Kocajt (7,840 ft.) and south-east to Shishtevec on a western spur of the Šar planina, crossing ridges and valleys, and even the White Drin, and dividing the Jakova district, leaving town and valley outside Albania and the mountain dependencies within.

From Shishtevec the frontier runs south nearly to, but excluding, Debar (Dibër); then follows the Korab and Mal i Deshatit ridge, parallel with the Šar planina and traversed by streams descending from it. Near Debar the Black Drin enters Albania and joins the White Drin at Kukës. At Debar M. i Deshatit ends and the Radika river from east of it enters the Drin. The frontier then makes a westward circuit to exclude Debar, and follows the Drin for about 4 miles; then mounts south-west on to the Jablanica ridge, which it follows south-east till, above Lin, it turns east to Lake Ochrida, and crosses it to its south-east shore, leaving the Sveti Naum monastery in Yugoslavia.

Turning east to Lake Prespa, and then south across its west arm, the Yugoslav frontier meets the Greek frontier of Albania within the lake. The boundary then crosses Little Lake Prespa and the Korçë-Florina road east of Bilisht, and runs nearly south along the Grammos watershed dividing the Greek streams Belitsa and Sarandaporos from the Albanian Devoll, Osum, and Lengarica. The roads from Korçë to Bilisht and to Leskovik are wholly Albanian. South of the Grammos ridge the frontier follows the west side of the Sarandaporos valley to its confluence with the Vjosë. At Perat and Melissopetra are the customs-stations on the roads from Leskovik to Konitsa and to Yannina.

South of the Vjosë the frontier crosses the Nëmerçkë and

Makrikambos ridges and the Gjinokastër–Yannina road at Kakavi (*Gk.* Kakavia). Then leaving the Çamanijas valley to Greece it reaches M. Shëndëlli and M. e. Ligojanit and the coast ridge south of Konispol. Finally turning north-west, the boundary runs parallel with the coast opposite Corfu, reaching the sea at C. Stilo south of Lake Butrinto, and following the mid-channel line to the Adriatic north of Corfu.

The Frontiers arbitrarily fixed by the Axis Powers

The boundary dictated by the Axis in 1941 is reported to leave the coast between Bar and Komina, prolonging the old boundary up the Liqen i Hotit. From the northernmost point of the old frontier (peak 2,187 m.) north-east to Andrijevisa; thence eastwards along the Mokra planina, to Mitrovica; thence south along the watershed between the White Drin and Sitnica rivers to a point east of Prizren; thence crossing Morava (Šar planina) to the upper Vardar at Grupčin. From there the line keeps east of the Tetovo–Ochrid railway to a point on Lake Ochrida south-east of Struga. Thence including the road from Struga by Posta, Resan, and Carev Dvor to the north end of Lake Prespa, rejoining the old frontier within the lake.

The new Greek frontier leaves the old at a peak 3 miles south of Bozhigrad and runs south to the coast, including, therefore, the headwaters of the Sarandaporos and Vijosë, and following the course of the Arakhthos to the gulf of Arta. But Greek Epirus, presumably, was destined to remain under direct Italian administration.

The districts annexed to Albania in 1941 thus appear to have been as follows:

- (a) The coast district between Ulcinj (Dulcigno) and Lake Scutari. This is essentially winter pasture, traditionally occupied by Albanian tribes from the Northern Highland, and of little use to Montenegro.
- (b) Part of the plain of Podgorica, likewise winter-pasture of Albanian tribes.
- (c) The valley of Gusinje in the Albanian Alps, essentially the middle course of the Vermosh river, of which the headwaters are in Albania: practically a Moslem-Albanian district, secluded from the mainly Slav areas to north and east, and bounded southwards by Catholic Albanians.
- (d) The plains of Metohija and Kosovo, at one time Albanian but devastated by the Serbs in 1912–1913; thus reuniting, within Albania, the old province of Kosovo.

- (e) The upper valley of the Black Drin from Debar to Lake Ochrida, reuniting tribal territories and economic areas on both banks of the river, and restoring Debar instead of Peshkopi as administrative centre.
- (f) The districts of Tetovo, Gostivar, and Kičevo, in the upper valley of the Vardar, east of the strong strategical barrier of the Šar planina.

The administration of these annexed districts was officially assimilated to that of Italian-controlled Albania, with its Fascist party-system. Serbs introduced here since 1913 are reported to have been expelled and Albanian bey-landowners restored. After long intercourse with Slavs, the Albanians settled in these eastern districts are cheerful active folk, unskilled labourers, sellers of food and drink, and transport workers; in the towns they practise silver filigree work and other traditional crafts.

Maps

A special note on maps is given in the last chapter. Meanwhile it is relevant to point out that Albania has only just been surveyed, and that no two maps agree in actual position or in detail. Heights, often quoted in the text, must not be taken too literally, distances are but relatively correct, and land forms are generalized.

Language and Place-names

The greatest difficulty, in either the writing or the reading of books on Albania, lies in the spelling of place- or feature-names. Appendix I is devoted to the language—its origin, its various dialects, its suppression by the Turks, and to the alphabets coined or adapted for its uses. In the section of that appendix headed 'The Battle of the Alphabets' the confusion, still apparent, is explained. Not until 1908 was a national alphabet agreed upon, and after, as well as before, that date books have been printed in differing dialects and alphabets. Travel books and maps are consistent only in disagreeing with each other. No doubt the need for maps during this war, and the remarkable achievements in supplying them, will do much to stabilize names. Moreover, the commendable efforts of Albanians in this century to provide a stable and uniform spelling will, and indeed do now, bear fruit. Their rulings are followed by the Permanent Committee on Geographical Names, which body has advised and helped in the production of this handbook. Yet, until custom hardens, we

are relying upon a ruling rather than upon popular acceptance, and, in many cases, the future may prove us wrong.

Conventional names have been used in a few instances. Thus Tirana, Scutari, Valona, and Durazzo are so described, although their Albanian names are also given. Lakes Ochrida, Prespa, Little Prespa, and Scutari are so spelt in order to avoid the confusion of Albanian, Serbian, and/or Greek names for features which lie athwart the frontiers. For the same reason the Boyana river is so called, although its proper Albanian name is Buenë. Dhrino is perhaps a more doubtful choice. Yet to the student it is really confusing to have two rivers 'Drin'. The name Dhrino has, in the past, been used for the Southern Drin, and we have accepted it well knowing that it is not officially correct. Such names as concern the coastline are taken from the chart, as is proper in these handbooks.

Names of features in Albania are rarely so much individual to the feature as descriptive of its locality. There are cases in which rivers, and, more occasionally, mountains have their own individual names, but they are rare. As in the British 'Straits of Dover, Vale of Evesham, Bridge of Allan, Water of Leith, Gatehouse of Fleet, Isle of Wight, and Pass of Glencoe', Albanian feature-names are generally compounded of a topographical term followed by the genitive of a town- or personality-name. The words for hill, river, bay, pass, and indeed for all topographical features are given as an introduction to the physical description (Chapter II), and are followed by examples of their use. It would, however, be absurd to index under these constantly recurring topographical terms, which precede the identification. They are indexed, therefore, under the appropriate place-name. Thus *Lum i Tiranës* (Tirana River) will be found under *Tirana*. There are cases, however, in which the descriptive following word is an adjective; for example *Mal i zi* means 'Black Mountain'. In such cases indexing must be under the topographical term, but they are easy to distinguish since a following place-name begins with a capital, and an adjective does not.

Inflexions may add difficulty to the English reader. But the examples of pp. 14-15 will show the usual forms they take. The root of the word is generally obvious, and under that root the index should be consulted.

CHAPTER II

PHYSICAL DESCRIPTION AND GEOLOGY

A. PHYSICAL DESCRIPTION

Topographical Names

LOCAL names of features and places are generally composed of the appropriate Albanian topographical word, followed by a name. Thus *Knetë e Tërbufit* is 'Tërbuf Lagoon'. Some topographical words are, therefore, given below as a help to the understanding of the following pages.

<i>Albanian</i>		<i>Meaning</i>	<i>Example</i>
<i>Indefinite</i>	<i>Definite</i>		
Bjeshkë	Bjeshka	Alpine pasture	Bjeshka e Kushnenit
Boçkë	Boçka	defile	Maja e Boçkës
Breg	Bregu	bank, shore (<i>Slav.</i>)	Bregu i Buenës
Buzë	Buza	water's edge	Buza e Ujit
Çukë	Çuka	peak	Çuka e Leshnjës
Fushë	Fusha	plain, meadow, clearing	Fusha e Shtojt
Gji or Gjîn	Gjiu or Gjîni	bay	Gjîni i Vlonës
Gropë	Gropa	basin, depression	Mali me Gropë
Grykë	Gryka	gorge	Gryka e Gjadrit
Gur	Guri	stone, rock	Guri i Gomarës
Han	Hani	inn	Hani i Vrakës
Hurdhë	Hurdha	pool, pond	Hurdha e Thellë
Kalivë	Kalivja (<i>Gk. Kalybe</i>)	hut	Kalivja e Laskalit
Katund	Katundi	village	Katundi i Arasit
Kep	Kepi	cape	Kepi i Rodonit
Knetë	Knetë	marsh, lagoon	Knetë e Kakarriqit
Kodër	Kodra	hill	Kodra e Luzhës
Kruë	Kroni	spring	Kroni i madh
Kunj	Kunji	wedge, ledge	Kunji i Ugut
Kunorë (<i>Tosk: Kurorë</i>)	Kunora (<i>Kurora</i>)	crown (of a hill)	Kunora e Dardhës
Lak	Laku	dale	Laku i Tërbunit
Liçen	Liçeni	lake	Liçeni i Maliqit
Lum	Lumi	river	Lumi i Bulqizës
Majë	Maja	summit	Maja e Golishit
Mal	Mali	mountain	Mali i Rrëncit
Malësi	Malësija	highland	Malsija e madhe
Malsi	Malsija		
Prre or Prroj	Prroni	stream-bed	Prroni i thatë
Përrue or Përroj	Përroi		

<i>Albanian</i>		<i>Meaning</i>	<i>Example</i>
<i>Indefinite</i>	<i>Definite</i>		
Pellg	Pellgu	marsh, pool, bight	Pellgu i Drinit
Qafë	Qafa	pass	Qafa e Pejës
Shë	Sheu	force, torrent	Sheu i Rrjollit
Shkallë	Shkalla	ladder, ascent	Shkalla e Gjadrit
Shkamb	Shkambi	cliff, rocky slope	Shkambi i Kavajës
Urë	Ura	bridge	Ura e Beshirit
Vorr (Tosk: Varr)	Vorri (Varri)	tomb	Varri i Abas Aliut
Va	Vau	ford	Vau i Spasit
Zall	Zalli	shingle, torrent-bed	Zalli i Herrit

Important Adjectives

<i>Masculine and Feminine</i>		<i>Meaning</i>	<i>Example</i>
i & e bardhë		white	Drin i bardhë
i madh, e madhe		large	Fan i madh
i poshtëm, e poshtëme		lower	Labinot i poshtëm
i sipërm, e sipërme		upper	Labinot i sipërm
i & e thatë		dry	Prroni i thatë
i & e vogël		small	Fan i vogël
i zi, e zezë		black	Mal i zi

Village names are often formed from those of plants or trees, from personal names Albanian or Moslem, or from names of saints, even in Moslem districts.

Names formed from those of plants or trees

<i>Indefinite</i>	<i>Definite</i>	<i>Meaning</i>	<i>Example</i>
Arnë	Arnëni	larch	Arrn
Blî	Blîni	lime-tree	Blinishti
Bre	Breu	fir	Bregas
Dardhë	Dardha	pear	Dardhë
Gorricë	Gorrica	wild pear	Goricë
Kallam	Kallami	reed	Kallmi i Maliqit
Karthpulë	Karthpula	bladder senna	Korthpulë
Kështenjë	Kështenja	chestnut	Kështenjë
Kullumri	Kullumrija	sloe	Kulumria
Kumbull(ë)	Kumbulla	plum	Qafa e Kumbullës
Lejthî	Lejthija	hazel	Lejthizë
Mollë	Molla	apple	Molla e Lurës
Murriz	Murrizi	hawthorn, briar	Maja e Murrizës
Qarr	Qarri	Turkey oak	Qarr
Shkozë	Shkoza	hornbeam	Shkozanj
Shtog	Shtogu	elder	Fusha e Shtogut
Thanë	Thana	cornel	Qafa e Thanës

The ending *-ishte*, *-ishtë* added to tree-names indicates a group. Thus *rrapishte* or *rrapishtë*, grove of plane-trees; *ullishte*, *ullishtë*, olive-grove.

*Place-names formed from
personal names*

<i>Christian</i>	Lekaj
	Markdedaj
	Nikaj
	Vuksanaj
<i>Moslem</i>	Ahmet Beu
	Halilaj
	Hajdaraj
	Hoxhaj

*Place-names formed from
Saints' names (Shën)*

Shëngjin	St. John
Shëngjergj	St. George
Shënkollë	St. Nicolas
Shënmri	St. Mary
Shënpal	St. Paul
Shtëpenz	St. Stephen
Shtoderr	St. Theodore

Lakes, Rivers, and Marshes of Albania

Albania owes its involved structure and intricate features partly to the complicated folding of its rocks, but chiefly to its copious rain and snowfall, the drainage of which has given rise to a remarkable river-system, combining long trough-valleys eroded in the softer beds, with precipitous gorges cut through the harder rocks between them. Further, during the uplifting of the main watershed between the Adriatic and the drainage eastward to the Danube and the Aegean, deep inland basins have been formed without original outlet; and these have only gradually been connected with the head-streams of the westward rivers. 'Give me a faithful picture of the rivers, streams, and lakes, and I will fill in the mountains for myself', said a wise man giving evidence as to the mapping of Great Britain; and though geological structure counts for much more in Albania, a general account of the Albanian rivers will be helpful introduction to the structure and topography. In Fig. 3 are shown separately all the main streams and their tributaries.

When any region is raised above sea-level, its initial drainage is from highland interior to coast. Of such drainage in Albania the great river-gorges seem to be remnants, all cut from east to west across the ridges of hard rock which have been left upstanding by agelong weathering. Examples are the gorges of the Drin, the Mat, the Shkumbî, the Devoll, and the Vjosë at Këlcyre. Between those ridges tributary streams have been eroded along the main axis of upheaval and folding, which is in general from north-west to south-east, and the subsided lake-basins have the same general trend, such as that of Lake Ochrida, prolonged southward into the plain of Korçë and northward into the trough-valley of the Black Drin to its confluence with the White Drin at Kukës. Lakes Prespa and Little Prespa occupy similar but shorter troughs, and drain underground into Lake Ochrida.

The basin of Korçë is now partly drained westward by the Devoll



1. *Albanian Alps: limestone peaks*



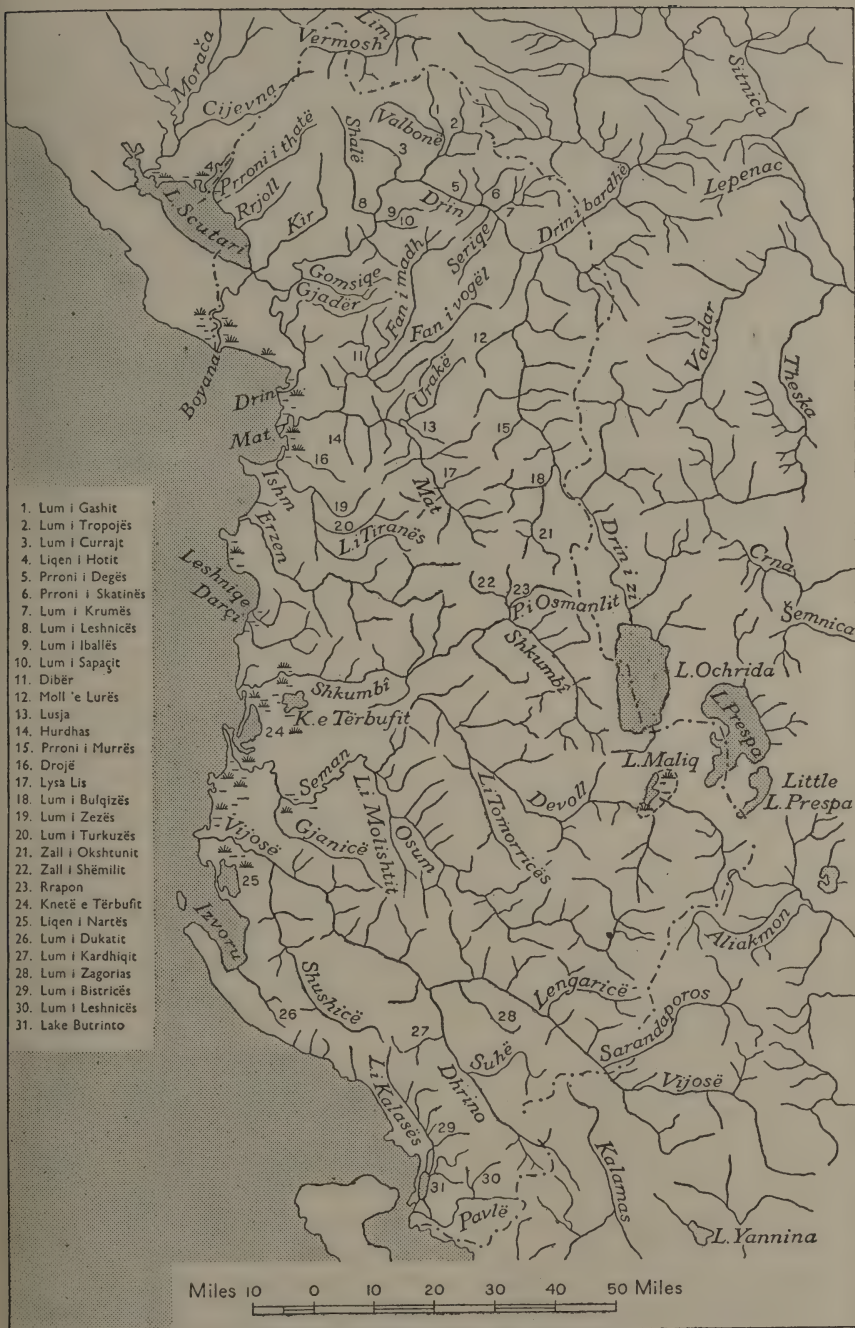
2. *Albanian Alps: snow water lake*



3. *Albanian Alps: looking NW. from Theth to M. e Radohinës*



4. *Albanian Alps: view N. from Gjecaj, at head of Shalë valley. Centre background M. i Pejës (M. e Harapit)*



gorge; that of Kolonjë south of it by the Osum, and farther south again the Sarandaporos depression by the Vijosë. Lake Ochrida itself, the Black Drin trough, and the White Drin basin round Prizren and Đakovica have been annexed by a head-system of the transverse Drin-Valbonë river, which has cut deep gorges clean through the highlands from Kukës to Scutari, with successive narrows over sills of hard rock, and has thrown forward the alluvial lowland which separates Lake Scutari from the coast between Ulcinj and Lesh.

North of the Drin the Albanian Alps have only transverse streams, the Shalë-Leshnicë, Kir, Rrjoll, Prroni i thatë, and Cem; south of it the Gjadër and Gomsiqe have the same character.

Within the great angle between the upper and lower Drin, the Mat drainage combines similarly an upper basin—formerly a lake, as its geological deposits show—with its main axis from north-west to south-east, and a transverse lower course through the gorge above Milot. Unlike the Drin, however, which receives from the north only the Valbonë and Leshnicë, the Mat collects the drainage of the Lumë and Urakë, the two Fan rivers, and the Dibri, before it reaches its gorge, and consequently contributes much alluvium to its wide coast plain.

South of the Mat gorge numerous smaller streams furrow the steep face of the Krujë ridge and drain small trough-basins beyond it. They become larger farther south, from the Drojë, Lum i Zezës, and Lum i Turkuzës (upper course Zall i Herri) to the Lum i Tiranës and the Erzen. The Ishm, diverted northward by the Mal i Kërçokës coast-range, collects the water of all the northern streams except the Drojë, and has filled with alluvium the former gulf between Tirana and the gulf of Rodoni. The Erzen, whose headwaters cut back far into the highland towards those of the Mat, breaks through the coast range at Ndroq and deposits its alluvium in Lales bay.

Again, south of the Krrabë-Çermenikë highland which bounds the Mat and Erzen the same 'inverted-L-shaped' combination of trough and gorge reappears in the Shkumbî, with its long upper valley parallel with the Black Drin, and its transverse gorge through the ridges between Librazhd and Elbasan. Like the Mat, it has important northern tributaries, the Prroni i Osmanlit, Rrapon, and Zalli i Shëmilit. After leaving the highland the Shkumbî, controlled southward by the hilly country around Belsh, follows closely the south edge of Krrabë and Garunjë, but has filled a former

gulf of which only the Knetë e Tërbufit swamp remains, and is only now beginning to form a coast-plain north of Knetë e Karavastas.

In the Southern Highlands the troughs are smaller and more numerous, and the gorges rare. The Devoll combines both, and has thus collected the drainage both of the Korçë basin and of the Tomorricë trough. Formerly it seems to have flowed into the Shkumbî near Bejlik, but now turns south-west along the façade of the Southern Highland to join the Osum. This stream similarly drains Kolonjë at its source, traverses the highland in a trough-valley, and emerges by a short gorge at Berat. The Seman, combining the waters of Devoll and Osum, traverses the hilly country of Mallakstra and the great marshland of Myzeqeja, which it continues to extend. The Vijosë, as already noted, has annexed the Sarandaporos basin beyond the Greek frontier, and traverses a remarkable gorge at Këlcyrë before joining the parallel Dhrino (Southern Drin) trough. The Shushicë tributary is another parallel trough-valley. Like the Seman, it waters a wide extent of lowland and marsh, and is throwing forward a delta south of it.

Remarkable gorges, on a smaller scale, are characteristic of the Lum i Bistricës, Lum i Leshnicës, and Pavla rivers in the extreme south; the Lum i Kalasës and lower Pavla have typical trough valleys, sinking into Lake Butrinto with a submerged gorge as outlet.

Topographical Divisions (Fig. 4)

West of the treaty boundary, which is marked in principle by the lake-region and the watershed ranges north and south of it, Albania consists of a highland interior and a lowland coast region. But each of these has distinct northern, central, and southern sections, and the south-eastern district of the highland extends through Albanian Epirus almost to the sea opposite Corfu and is structurally continuous with the maritime highlands of Laberia as far west as Cape Linguetta (*Alb.* Kep i Gjuhëzës) and Valona bay (Gji i Vlonës). These six main regions are further composed in detail as follows:

I. WESTERN (LOWLAND) ALBANIA

- A. *Northern Lowlands*, including the plains of Scutari and Zadrimë.
- B. *Central Lowlands*, including the plains of Tirana, Shijak and Kavajë.
- C. *Southern Lowlands*, traversed by the Shkumbî, Devoll-Seman, and Vijosë-Shushicë.

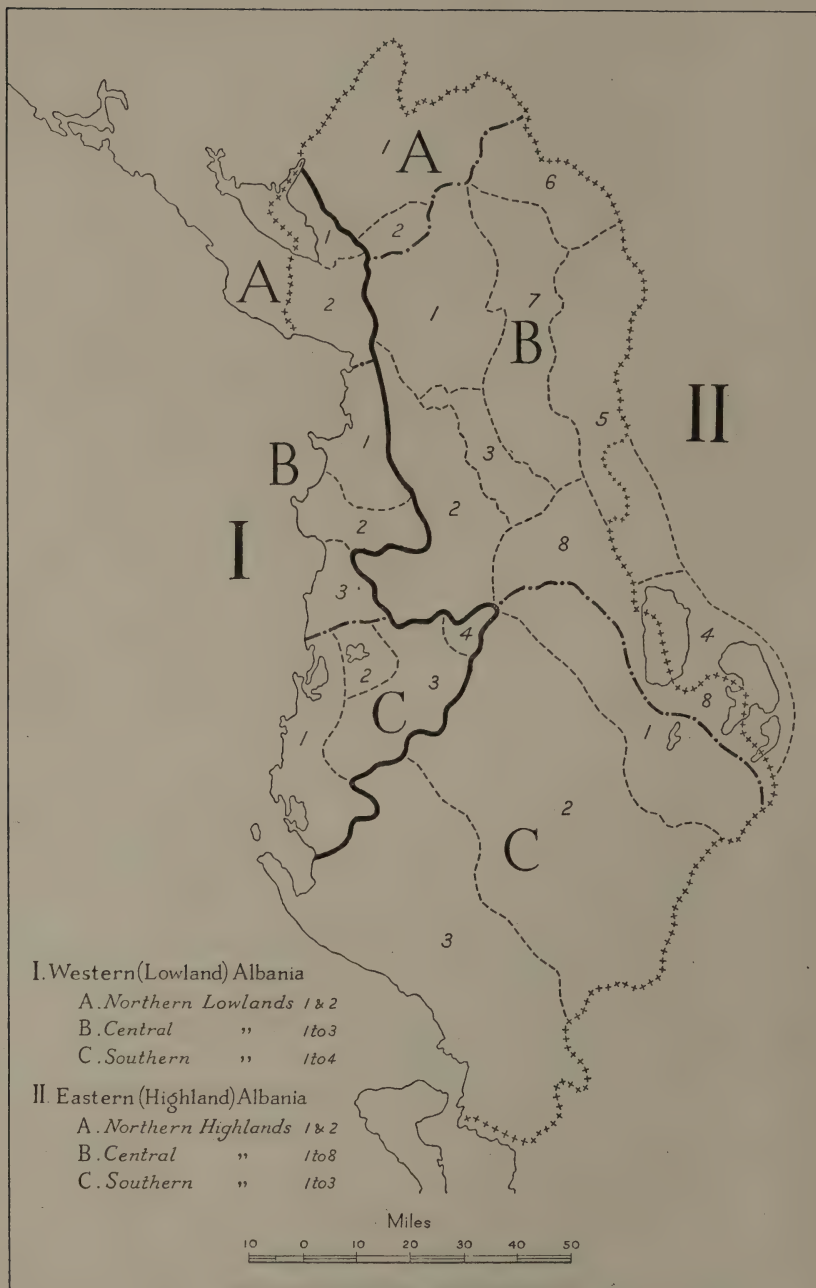


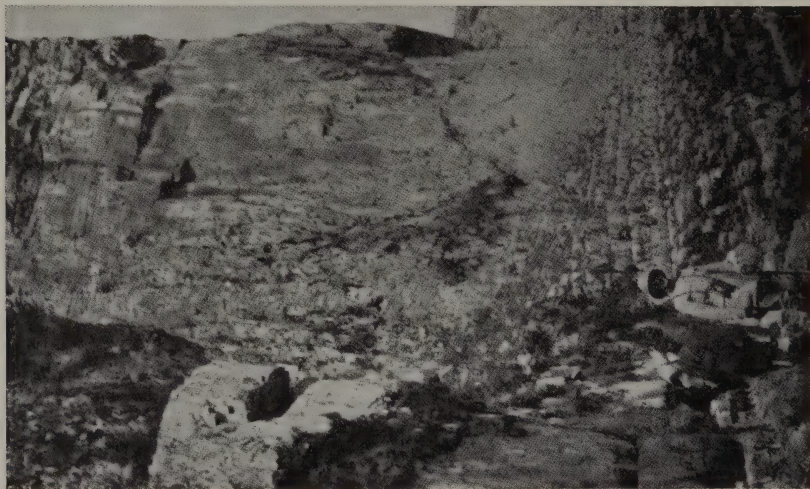
FIG. 4. *Topographical Divisions*



5. *Albanian Alps: the Valbonë valley, looking NE. to M. e Rragamit*



6. *Looking SW. over valley of L. i Shalës from Q. e Shtegut të Dhenvet*



7. A vertical cliff on the N. boundary



8. The gorge of the Valbonë, near Dragobi, looking north

II. EASTERN (HIGHLAND) ALBANIA

- A. *Northern Highlands*, the Albanian continuation of the Montenegrin karst-plateau to the Drin gorge, forming the 'North Albanian Alps' (*Alb.* Bjeshkët e Nemuna; *Serb.* Prokletija) as far east as the watershed between Black and White Drin (Drin i zi and Drin i bardhë). The alterations of frontier made by the Germans in 1941 included the basin of the White Drin in this area.
- B. *Central Highlands*, including the Black Drin trough, the eastern border-ranges from Lake Ochrida (Liqen i Ohrit) to the Drin gorge, the western ranges Mali i Skanderbeut and Malsija e Krujës, and the plateaux drained by head-streams of the Shkumbi and Devoll as far east as the lake-region.
- C. *Southern Highlands*: the parallel ranges and troughs of Albanian Epirus, from the upper Osum and Vijosë to the sea, including the ranges of Laberia and the hill-country of Mallakastra.

These topographical regions and structural divisions are almost identical with those adopted later in describing the vegetation. In Section B (Geology) of this chapter the geological 'zones' are correlated as follows: (1) 'Adriatic-Ionian' is included in II. C. Southern Highlands; (2) 'Lower Albanian-Epirotic' embraces most of I. C. Southern Lowlands and part of II. C. Southern Highlands; (3) 'Dalmatian-Montenegrin coastal chain' includes I. A & B. Northern and Central Lowlands and the seaward façade of II. B.; (4) Cukali and (5) 'North Albanian Tableland' are included in II. A. Northern Highlands; and (6) 'Serpentine zone' and (7) 'Drin and Korab' in II. B. 4 to 8 and II. C. 1.

I. WESTERN (LOWLAND) ALBANIA

The topographical unity of Albania results from this, that, unlike Greece to the south and Montenegro to the north, in both of which high coast-ranges descend steeply into deep sea, Albania has a fairly wide lowland foreshore, marginal to the rugged and complex highland interior. Along this foreshore fertile basins are rare, small, and isolated, but economically and politically central, as is shown by the situation of the capital Tirana and the chief ports Durazzo (*Alb.* Durrës) and Valona (*Alb.* Vlonë). The lowlands consist mainly of Tertiary sands, clays, and marls, soft enough to be easily broken up by the weather into fertile soils, and eroded by the streams, which issue abruptly and fully formed from the highland gorges, and deposit much gravel and silt, forming marshes and lagoons behind the beaches and sand-dunes which separate their deltas. Ridges of harder sandstones and

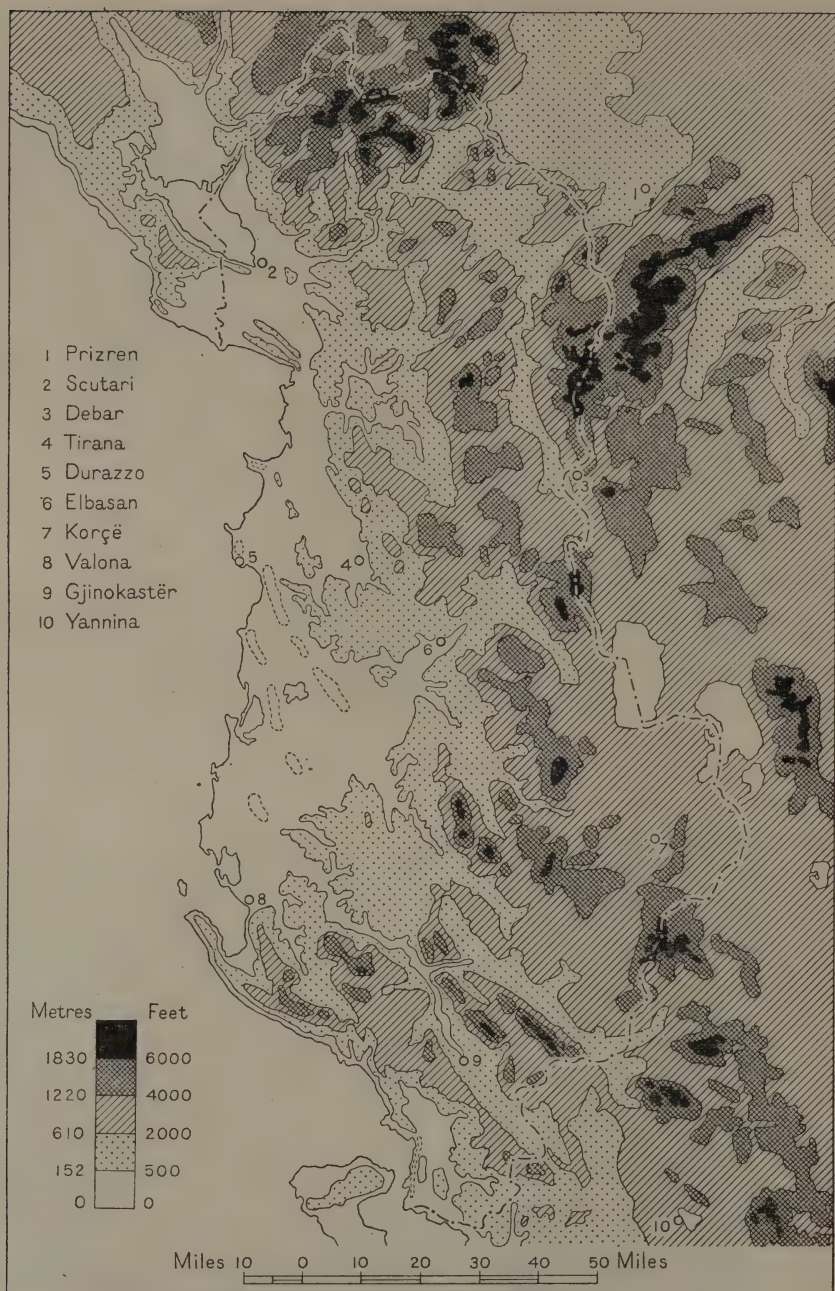


FIG. 5. *Physical Features*

limestones, it is true, emerge among the later deposits and divide the lowland into several distinct coast-plains. They trend south-east to north-west, and reach the shore in hilly promontories, between which are open bays with long beaches, dunes, and marshes traversed by the mouths of the rivers. South-eastward they rise and merge in the loftier ranges of Mallakastræ and Albanian Epirus, but they do not disrupt the continuity of the lowland. Even between the Shkumbî and the Erzen the coast-plain of Kavajë outflanks the spurs of the Krrabë plateau, and there is no high moorland except between Tirana and Elbasan. In some districts the lowland seems to be subsiding into swamp; elsewhere there may be a slight recent rise, for the larger rivers have cut channels from 20 to 15 feet deep in their flood-plains and traverse the ridges in narrow steep-sided defiles. Near Rrogozhinë the Shkumbî has two such terrace-levels. The complicated pattern of the lowland drainage is partly due to capture of the headwaters of one stream by another. Some of the soft clay ridges have been denuded by rainfall and form 'bad-lands' with ragged surface almost devoid of vegetation, especially where forests have been destroyed by over-pasturing. Limestone surfaces, on the other hand, are pitted with *dolines* which form small lakes, or drain away surface-water into swallow-holes, as on the Belsh plateau, west of the lower Devoll. Most of the lowland, however, is well supplied both with cultivable soils and with water.

The principal ridges within lowland Albania, already mentioned, are (a) along the coast from beyond the Montenegrin frontier, through the Mal i Rrëncit to the defile of the Drin at Lesh; thence along the highland façade to the gorge of the Mat at Milot, where it merges in the Krujë frontage of the Central Highland. It is this hard sill across the Drin at Lesh that accumulated silt and forced the river to burst its bank where it leaves the highland and join the Boyana at Scutari. (b) From the coast at C. Rodoni (*Alb.* Kep i Rodonit), between the coast-plain of Kavajë and the plain of Tirana, to the Shkumbî and thence bounding the Myzeqe coast-plain as far as the Seman, and continued by the hill-country of Mallakastræ west of Berat. (c) From the coast at C. Pali (*Alb.* Kep i Palit) through Mal i Durrësit, reappearing at C. Laghi (*Alb.* Kep i Lagit) and passing south between Knetë e Karavastas and Knetë e Tërbufit, and thence beyond the Seman river into Mallakastræ, between the Seman and the Vjosë, continued into Epirus by Trebeshin and Dhëmbel.

These ridges are sometimes low and narrow, elsewhere domed or crested with peaks. They are usually covered with thick bush or low

oakwoods, but there are also 'bad-lands' and rain-washed escarpments.

Between these lowland ridges are coastal flats below sea-level with lagoons and brackish swamps traversed by alluvial distributaries of the larger rivers and interspersed with gravel banks and reed beds. These swamps are malarious and sparsely inhabited. Mosquitoes are being destroyed by introducing sea-water and by draining areas above sea-level. Inland, much alluvium is deposited by the rivers during the rainy season. South of Durazzo the rivers have permanent beds, but the Mat, Drin, and Boyana change their courses and limit cultivation. Even above sea-level the water-table is high, copses and scattered trees are frequent, and there is rich meadowland. Consequently pasture is wider spread than cultivation.

Farther inland, where the rivers are incised in their alluvium, the land is fertile when it has been drained, and supports the most dense populations of Albania.

A. Northern Lowlands

1. *The Plain of Scutari (Alb. Shkodër)*

At the north end of lowland Albania a wide but not deep trough, enclosed between the abrupt south-western façade of the Malsi e madhe and Cukali highlands and the Rumija coast ridge, is partly filled by Lake Scutari, 30 miles long from north-west to south-east and 10 miles broad from south-west to north-east, with the drowned valley Liqen i Hotit (10 miles long) cut deep north-eastwards into the mountains. Its south-west shore is steep-to, but to north-east is the nearly level plain of Scutari, 3 to 5 miles wide, between the shore and the hills, intersected by the Prroni i thatë, Kir, and several smaller streams. North-west of the Liqen i Hotit this plain is even wider, but lies lower, and is swamp and lagoon as far as the Morača river, which Lake Scutari receives from Montenegrin territory with its tributaries the Zeta and the Cijevna (Gevna), the latter rising in highland Albania as the Cem. At its southern end the lake is drained by the Boyana (Buenë) river through a defile, between Scutari Castle (Rozafat i Shkodrës) and Tarabosh, so narrow that annual floods in winter cover a large area of the plain, which is mostly winter pasture of the Kelmend tribe from the highland. Below mean level, the lake is very shallow (under $4\frac{1}{2}$ fathoms) but has valuable fisheries. The Plain of Scutari extends along and beyond the arbitrary Montenegrin frontier and is bounded to the east by the Malsi e madhe ('great highland'), the Mirditë highlands, and Mal i Veljës, to the

west by the Drin gulf (Pellg i Drinit), and to the south-west by the Montenegrin coast-range and its continuation in Mal i Rrëncit. This north-eastern shore of Lake Scutari is a low slope of dry gravel with parallel streams issuing from highland gorges and little fertility. The surface is mostly alluvial, with patches of free-draining gravel and pebbles such as the delta deposits of Pustopojë and the lower Prroni i thatë. Near Scutari there is more clay and moister soil, with scanty grass-cover. Most of this district is cultivated, with a few copses, and with hedges or stone walls between fields as in England. Towards Liqen i Hotit and Brigjë village the valley floor is level with field-cultivation. The Fushë e Shtojt, a plain 12 miles long by 3 broad, immediately north of Scutari, and Ivanaj south-east of the Liqen i Hotit, yield maize, tobacco, olives, vines, and pomegranates; but the Pustopojë (Prroni i thatë) delta is stony and barren, with oak-scrub. West of the Boyana the Tarabosh and Majë e Golishit are limestone upland with sage-scrub, woodland, and some cultivation. To the south-west this upland sinks gently into the Boyana marshes.

2. *The Plain of Zadrimë*, south of the Boyana and the Drin i madh, extends about 15 miles as far as Lesh, narrowing from 6 to 3 miles. It is intersected by the old bed of the Drin, now only a flood channel about 18 feet wide, till it is joined by the Gjadër from the Zadrimë and Mnelë highlands. East of it there is much marsh, fed by hill torrents; westward towards the Boyana are many irregular channels, some deep, some silted, and large marshes—Bregu i Buenës and Knetë e Kakarriqit—lying between the low ridges of Mal i Kakarriqit (869 ft.), Mal i Barbullushit (1,293 ft.), and Mal i Rrëncit along the coast (1,138 ft.). These marshes have flood-drainage to the Boyana.

This plain of Zadrimë—alluvium, sand, and clay—is nearly level and easily saturated, with much permanent marsh and choked drainage channels, but fairly firm in summer. Its drier parts are cultivated and populous, and there are similar patches among the marshes, but extensive winter floods preclude development, as on the lake-shore north of Scutari. In the south the Trush district is sometimes flooded by its own rainfall. The only large town of this region is Scutari (Shkodër). Lesh, in the pass south of the region, connects Zadrima with the lowland of Tirana.

B. Central Lowlands

The Plains of Tirana, Shijak, and Kavajë

From Lesh to Tirana the coastland widens gradually, but is bisected obliquely by low ridges of Tertiary sands and clays which

leave the coast at Cape Rodoni and rise south-eastwards into the wide Krrabë moorland. East of this barrier the numerous torrents which issue from the gorges of Malsi e Krujës cross the plain, but are then diverted north-westward into the Ishm, which reaches the sea east of Cape Rodoni. Only the southernmost, the Erzen, breaks through the low Mal i Kërçokës (1,000 ft.), and follows a devious course to a separate mouth between capes Rodoni and Pali, its lower channel standing in the same relation to yet another seaward ridge, Mal i Durësit, as does the Ishm to Mal i Kërçokës. Between Lesh, Tirana, and Durazzo there are thus three similar plains, separated by low hills which are covered with scrub and sparse remains of forest.

1. *The Plain of Tirana* has gravel soil, overlying compact and barren clay. The lower seaward half has water enough, and some swamp between copse vegetation and cultivated lands, through which the lower course of the Mat has thrown forward a causeway of gravel to the coast. The main high road from Tirana to Lesh and Scutari follows the edge of the marshland, but swerves inland to cross the Mat above Milot at its exit from the hills. The villages are on the drier ground east of the road, and the old fortress town of Krujë is served by a branch-road from the point where the road from the north to Durazzo leaves that to Tirana. The northern part of this Tirana plain includes the district known as Fusha e Leshit, fairly dry except for a lagoon and swamp around Rrejë, south of which comes the Breg i Matit, firm and well cultivated, along the right bank of the Mat. The Fushë e Gurzit on the left bank of the Mat is swampy forest except along the river, and Fusha e Suzës on the right bank of the Ishm is also mainly marsh. Both the Erzen and the Ishm (Tirana) plains are sufficiently elevated inland to be intersected by deep stream-beds, and are well drained and cultivated. Eastwards there are marshes with scrubby woodland, and east of Tirana itself the ground is hummocky towards the foothills of Mal i Dajtit.

2. *The Plain of Shijak* is alluvial deposit from the Erzen which collects much water from a twofold basin within the highland, and more from a fan of tributaries south and east of Tirana. It then traverses the M. i Kërçokës through a long and winding valley which carries the old road from Durazzo by Ndroq to Tirana—now rebuilt as a speedway (autostrada)—and acquires more tributaries along the south margin of the hills. At one time it may have reached the sea through Durazzo bay, but its actual lower course is northward, about 5 miles east of Durazzo, and its mouth is now about 9 miles north of that town. Bringing down much silt, it has almost obliterated

the former marshes in Lales (Lalzë) bay, except those north of Knetë e Durrësit; and though the seaboard is almost uninhabited and covered with damp forest, there is a large population, with many farms and small enclosed fields, around Shijak on the high road to Vorrë. The lower course of the Erzen is now deeply incised (30–40 ft.) into the plain, which must have risen more than 50 feet since it was formed. Towards Cape Pali and the M. i Durrësit peninsula (617 ft.), however, the great swamp Knetë e Durrësit becomes an open lagoon with steep-to western shore, and was a port, opening north, in Roman times. Now it is one of the most malarious districts in Albania.

3. *The Plain of Kavajë.* This area might fall into either the Central or the Southern Lowlands.

Between Durazzo bay and M. i Kërçokës, which broadens southward into rolling hill-country, the Kavajë plain, about 11 miles by 4, is fertile as far as the lower Shkumbî, though low hills rise to south-eastward of Cape Laghi. The southward highway from Durazzo joins the Valona–Lushnje–Elbasan road at Rrogozhinë on the right bank of the Shkumbî. In its general structure the Kavajë lowland is continuous with the Lushnje district south of the Shkumbî, but, as most of it lies above swamp-level, nearly the whole of it has been reclaimed and cultivated. Its communications are with Durazzo and Tirana, not with Elbasan or the south. It is, however, sometimes grouped with the Myzeqe and other lowlands south of the Shkumbî.

All this series of northern lowlands is separated from those south of the Shkumbî by the broad but not lofty moorland of Krrabë which extends from the Çermenikë highland north of Elbasan to the south end of M. i Kërçokës, enclosing the middle basin of the Erzen. The rugged, eroded surface and dry sterility of this moorland make communication between Tirana and the south difficult. It has even been found necessary to plan a separate railway from Durazzo to Elbasan closely following the Shkumbî, rather than prolong the projected line to Tirana, whilst the high road from Tirana to Elbasan has been completed only recently.

C. Southern Lowlands

South of the Krrabë barrier lies a continuous southern lowland, bounded to the north by the Shkumbi along the foot of the Krrabë hills, and to the south-east by the lower courses of the Devoll and Seman and by the foothills of Mallakastra extending to the sea at Valona. It is thus of triangular form, with a long coastal base and

its apex inland at Elbasan. It consists of four belts of country, parallel with the coast, which are:

1. The Myzeqe sand-dunes, lagoons, and swamps, extending inland for 5 to 10 miles as far as the line of low hills (Guri i Gomarës, 633 ft.), which prolong the line of Cape Laghi and reach Fier and Levan south of the Seman, where they merge into the rolling country of Mallakastra.
2. A level alluvial plain with patches of marsh, and one large swamp and lagoon, Knetë e Tërbufit, south of the Shkumbî and draining into it.
3. The more hilly plateau, east of a line from Rrogozhinë through Lushnje to Berat, of which the principal centre is Belsh.¹
4. The Elbasan plain between the Belsh plateau and the Shkumbî, about $12\frac{1}{2}$ miles from east to west and $4\frac{1}{2}$ miles from north to south, and extending south over a very low gap to the middle course of the Devoll.

All these districts are formed of soft Tertiary clays, sands, and marls of various ages, deposited in what was a great bay, and only slightly corrugated later along the lines of low hills already noted. As usual the rivers have raised their beds and alluvial banks above the general marshland level, leaving large areas as lagoons to be filled up later.

1. *The Myzeqe Plain* is the name specifically given to the lowland between the lower Shkumbî to the north and the hills of Mallakastra to the south, but is sometimes used to include both the plain of Kavajë north of the Shkumbî and the lowlands south of the Vijosë. Its wide swamps—Knetë e Karavastas north of the Seman and Knetë e Nartës between the Vijosë and Valona bay (Gji i Vlonës)—are of maritime lagoon-type, with sandy beaches seaward. Where they have been drained they are very fertile, yielding two crops of maize in a year; unreclaimed, they have much good pasture, and large irrigation schemes are on paper; but their clay is impermeable, floods last long, surface-water stagnates in pools, and the only natural communications are along the banks of meandering streams with frequent distributaries. High roads had to be embanked. The most prosperous district is south of Knetë e Karavastas, along the lower Seman to Brostar, because the Seman channel lies above plain-level and irrigation is easy.

¹ Distinguish this Belsh between Lushnje and Elbasan from Ballsh between Berat, Fier, and Valona, the medieval home of the Ballsh dynasty, and site of Anglo-Persian oil wells.

2. *The basins east of the Gur i Gomarës coast hills*, though swampy, are better defined and separated by dry and fertile plain; but there is much malaria, and the population is small. The chief settlement Lushnje is prosperous, an important halt on the main north-south road, and the junction for Berat and the south-east.

3. *The Belsh Plateau* lies higher and is much more deeply dissected, in marls and clays, which are sometimes impervious enough to carry swamps and small lakes, but much of it is fertile. The plain of Belsh itself is surrounded by forests.

4. *The Elbasan Plain*, between the Belsh plateau and the Shkumbî, is about $12\frac{1}{2}$ miles from east to west and $4\frac{1}{2}$ miles from north to south. Northward the Shkumbî river flows close below the rugged edge of the Krrabë highland, but southward a broad and very low gap connects with the Devoll valley, where it leaves the highland and turns south-westwards in a long defile between the slopes of M. i Tomorrit and the Belsh plateau.

Elbasan lies north of the Shkumbî, at the foot of the Krrabë mass, with a fine mediæval bridge on the road to Ballsh and Berat. It has not the strategical position of Tirana, but is the gathering-point of roads from all parts of the lowland for the ancient highway, the Roman *Via Egnatia*, through the mountains to the lake-region and Macedonia. It has always been a meeting-place between Gëgs and Tosks, and its dialect is regarded as standard Albanian. Much of the Elbasan plain is under pasture, with market gardens round the town, and orchards, olives, and oranges south of the Shkumbî, enclosed with high hedges, especially in the eastern part. West of the town the soil is sandy, with pasture and low scrub. Between Shkumbî and Devoll orchards and cereal crops predominate in Fusha e Bejlikut, with some pasture, marsh, and woodland, bordered to east and west by wooded hills.

II. EASTERN (HIGHLAND) ALBANIA

A. *The Northern Highlands*

1. *The Limestone Plateaux*: from the plains of Scutari to the watershed of the Yugoslav river Lim, in the extreme north of Albania, and from the Montenegrin frontier to the middle course of the Drin, a vast limestone highland is continuous with the Montenegrin plateau, but more deeply dissected by river-gorges. It lies nearly level, with watershed ridges (rather than peaks) rising to 8,000–8,500 feet, and extends for 30 miles from east to west and for 12 miles

from north to south. Its two main districts, the 'North Albanian Alps' (Malsi e madhe) and the Cukali highland, differ in geological structure and consequently in land-forms. In Cukali the great limestones have been removed, exposing older shales, cherts, and limestones much contorted; and the plateau structure and narrow gorges of the North Albanian Alps are replaced by more rounded masses and wider valleys, with grassy slopes among their forests. All the gorges, however, have been glaciated like those of the limestone district and have deep U-shaped heads, where they are as much as 3,000 feet deep.

The drainage in the limestone of the North Albanian Alps is complicated. Some streams fall south-eastward into the Valbonë and the Drin gorge, but the Kir, Prroni i Banushit (Benushi), and Prroni i thatë flow into the lake of Scutari, the Cem into the Montenegrin Morača, and the Vermosh eastward into the Lim. In the middle of the plateau (long. $19^{\circ} 50' E.$) the deep narrow Lum i Shalës rising on Majë Jezerce (8,465 ft.), the highest peak of the district, flows from north to south till it turns abruptly eastward to enter the Drin gorge as the Leshnicë. The Kir, though some of its head-streams flow east, finds a south-westward channel across the Cukali rocks and emerges east of Scutari town. The lower gorge of the Drin itself flows nearly west below Dushman. East of the Shalë valley and beyond the abrupt ridge of Majë e Boshit, the Valbonë, L. i Currajt, and L. i Nikajt flow south-eastward towards the margin of the limestone region, and join the Drin before it enters its main gorge.

Between these principal streams the chief ranges vary in form. North of the Cem the ridges of Hoti and Gruda rise in Mal i Vilës to 6,867 feet. Between Cem and Prroni i thatë is a fairly level plateau, about 4,000 feet, deeply incised, but well provided with summer pastures, rising in Veleçik to 5,656 feet. East of Prroni i thatë a high narrow line of peaks—Majë e Radohinës (8,071 ft.) and Mal i Elbunit (7,356 ft.)—has steep escarpments towards the Kir and Shalë valleys, and high passes. Between Shalë and Curraj, Kakinja is also rugged, narrow, and continuous, with a few very high passes. Beyond the Nikaj-Curraj basin, Majë e Hekuravë (8,530 ft.) is the summit of a massive limestone block connected with Kakinja and with Jezerce between the Shalë and the Valbonë. Finally, beyond the Valbonë-Lum i Gashit basin the plateau hardly exceeds 5,000 feet, though Shkëlzen reaches 8,071 feet, with a very steep escarpment overlooking the Tropojë valley. Vegetation here follows the structure. In contrast with the western valleys, which are fairly

fertile and habitable, the central and eastern, which have been glaciated, have a U-shaped section, precipitous sides, heavily forested upper slopes, and a few backward and wild tribal settlements still almost wholly pastoral; Toplanë, Shalë, and Nikaj are typical. The gorges themselves are almost uninhabited.

Some Albanian tribes, Hoti and Gruda, live beyond the frontier district of Malsi e madhe, and here are also the summer pastures of Kelmendi, whose lowland winter quarters are in Zadrima and Bregu i Matit, near Scutari. South of Prroni i thatë, a ridge of white limestone abruptly overlooks Cukali and the region of Pulti (Pulati), in which rises the Kir. East of the narrow Shalë valley, Kakinja ridge is a formidable barrier between the Shalë tribe and its inveterate enemies the Nikaj, who are among the roughest and most militant of Albanians. The high Qafë e Shtegut të Dhenvet pass (6,000 ft.) leads into Prroni i thatë, and the Qafë e Pejës (5,600 ft.) to Gusinje in the Lim basin, across the Prokletija ('accursed') mountains, which divide Catholic from Moslem as well as limestone plateau from Palaeozoic schists and Triassic beds of the Macedonian series. On these passes even the Shalë-Nikaj feud is intermitted in daylight, for access to markets. Between the Curraj and the Valbonë basins the M. e Hekuravë plateau (8,100 ft.) is undissected and continuous northward to Kakinja round the head of the Curraj. This plateau is, however, separated by the deep upper Valbonë from Majë e Kolatës (8,400 ft.), of similar level-bedded limestone, which is the watershed of the Lim basin and continuous with Kakinja. This is the northern margin of the high plateau, overlooking schists whence the Valbonë and L. i Gashit headwaters traverse the whole width of the limestone region. East of the L. i Gashit, Shkëlzen reaches 7,900 feet, but the rest of the watershed is lower. Beyond the watershed is the Ribnik tributary of the White Drin. These eastern sections of the highland overlooking the lower Valbonë are sparsely occupied in summer by Krasniqi and Gashi tribes, for there is much alpine pasture above the forest belt.

2. *Cukali*. Whereas the Mirditë and Dukagjin highlands consist mainly of serpentine with occasional exposures of underlying formations, often of igneous origin, the older shales, cherts, and limestones predominate north of the Drin, with fewer eruptive materials, but with violently contorted structure and irregular landscape. East of Scutari there has also been overthrust of Mirditë serpentine. This country, known as Cukali, is dissected, in deep gorges, by two recent but considerable streams, the Kir and the Leshnicë, which is the



9. *The dry summer bed of the Upper Kir valley*



10. *The Fan i vogël about 5 miles above its junction with the Fan i madh*



11. *The Shkumbî gorge: looking upstream, east of Xibrrakë*



12. *The Drin valley at Koman*

lower course of the L. i Shalës. Where the Drin cuts through limestone its gorge is precipitous; in Shalë it is wider, with habitable terraces above, forest below, and a narrow flood plain. It has been over-deepened, and conserves traces of older landscapes on either flank; nor does it follow the geological division precisely, but has some Cukali patches on its left bank.

In Cukali conditions become less austere as the valleys widen. Most of the Kir basin is densely forested, but the numerous small valleys of Postriba district between its lower course and the Drin are inhabited, because open and fairly fertile. Principal mountain masses are Korja e Rajës (5,741 ft.) overlooking the Drin gorge, Majë e Leshnicës (4,134 ft.) between Drin and Shalë, M. i Boshës (2,428 ft.), round which the Drin turns to the west, and Cukali (5,650 ft.), the crown of a wide dome with torrent beds on all sides. East of the limestone highlands, and north-east of the Drin from Kukës down to its gorge, the great Secondary series of serpentine rocks is exposed, with large massive land-forms; but the frontier ranges, Kodër e Luzhës (4,000 ft.), Majë e Plashit (3,500 ft.), Majë e Krepit (4,600 ft.), and Shkallë e Mundeks (3,800 ft.), enclose wide forested basins—Prroni i Degës, Skatina, and Krumë—very sparsely inhabited by Krasniqi, Gashi, Bytyçi, and Hasi tribes. Even after the devastation of 1913, there are still remnants of Albanian occupants throughout the Kosovo province drained by the White Drin. The district is sometimes called the 'Highlands of Jakovë' (Malsi e Jakovës).

B. *The Central Highlands*

Opposite Cukali, and similar to it in structure, lies a block of country including the Fan drainage-area, and commonly known as Mirdita.

South of the Fan basin the topography and landscape of Albania begin to be more closely related to its geological structure; for the diverse and complex older rocks which are exposed between the Drin and the Fan are overlaid southward by late Secondary and by Tertiary strata compressed into a series of parallel folds with the same north-west to south-east trend. Moreover, in the Çermenikë and Gollobordë plateaux north of the Shkumbî river, and in the south-eastern plateaux round Korçë, the thick Tertiary overload of *flysch* sandstones and conglomerates further obscures this structure, because it has not been so deeply denuded as in the west. Four principal folds are conspicuous in the region north of the Shkumbî; their gable-like anticlines are:

- a. The abrupt western-border ridge of M. e Krujës and M. i Dajtit, which continues south of the Shkumbî as M. i Shpatit.
- b. The west-central range of M. i Skanderbeut, overlaid southward by the Çermenikë flysch-plateau, but continued beyond the Shkumbî in M. i Polisit and Gur i Topit.
- c. The eastern-border ranges from M. i Shenjt to Jablanica and Malet e Mokrës west of Lake Ochrida.
- d. The frontier range of Korab and Mal i Gjalicës (Gjalica e Lumës), east of the Drin.

Between these ranges, described more fully below, lie the synclinal troughs of the Black Drin, the Mat, the upper Shkumbî, and the upper Ishm and Erzen, before they cut through the Kruja-Dajti ridge. As has been noted already, these folds are concordant with the north-west to south-east ridges which emerge here and there in the northern coastland; M. i Skanderbeut with M. i Skurajvit and with M. i Veljës beyond the Mat; Malsi e Krujës with M. i Kakarriqit, and M. i Rrëncit beyond the old Drin, and Rumija north of the Boyana. Similarly the parallel folds of Epirus, Tomorri and Shpiragri, are concordant with the more lowly ridges that end in Capes Rodoni and Pali. All these ridges are limestone anticlines, the troughs being scooped out of the superincumbent *flysch*.

The frontier, as described in the Introduction, follows the western margin of the Drin trough from Lake Ochrida to Debar, then passes to its eastern margin, and follows the frontier range, crossing the White Drin some distance above its confluence, and excluding its upper basin. Northwards the frontier range is the watershed between the Valbonë tributary of the Drin and the Gusinje headwater of the Danubian Lim. The frontier thus follows, more or less accidentally, the Triassic outcrop, leaving to Yugoslavia the Palaeozoic margin of the Pelagonian block in Stogovo planina north of Lake Ochrida, and to Albania the thick zone of serpentine which overlies the Trias and caps the eastern border ranges as far north as the great bend of the Drin. In what follows, the lake-region is described first, then the Drin trough with the frontier range east of it, and then the eastern highland ranges, between the tributaries of the Drin and the Fan-Mat system.

1. *Mirdita*

Within the great bend of the Drin, and facing Cukali across it, is the complicated highland known generally as Mirdita, though the real home of the Mirditë group of tribes is the Fan drainage-

area, and is everywhere separated from the Drin by a belt of other tribes—Qerreti i Pukës, Kabashi, Iballja, and Mali i zi, on its left-bank tributaries. These other tribes inherit the general name of Dukagjini from the local dynasty of 'Duke John' in the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries, whose name survives in a village on a strong site overlooking the Drin where the road from Scutari to Prizren reaches it at Ura e Spaçit, in the Mal i zi country. From almost all this region, as from Cukali, the great limestones have been denuded—though a tabular outlier remains far south in Munella (6,332 ft.)—and also the schists and older limestones of Cukali itself, exposing older Secondary rocks, some sedimentary, others metamorphic or volcanic, of varied composition and mineral wealth. North of the Fan basin the landscape is in three stages: (a) narrow gorges over-deepened into the Drin, draining (b) considerable upland valleys, L. i Sapaçit, L. i Kabashit (Gomina), Gomsiqe, and Gjadër, separated by (c) concave profiles, which are sometimes the escarpments of pasturable plateaux. The slopes are pine-forested with poor villages, separated from each other by the steep round-topped mass of Krrabi (5,400 ft.) and the Bjeshkë e Kushnenit-Tërbunit ridge (4,600 ft.).

In the Fan basin the character of the landscape changes. Above the gorge by which the united river reaches the Mat the valleys are larger, wider, and more open, with numerous settlements and much cultivation. Between the Fan i madh and Fan i vogël the triangular karst-plateau of Munella has many large *dolines*, which hold snow till summer, and poor pasturage. On its precipitous escarpment are a few pines, but on the basal platform of eruptive Triassic porphyrite are limestone outliers and sloping terraces with cliff debris, dissected by torrents, but still well forested: and the same landscape is continued southward. On the more barren eruptive rocks beechwoods are replaced by pines and *Forsythia europaea*. The only villages here, Mushtë and Mesul, are below the limestone cliffs (about 3,000 ft.). Mesul makes excellent wine. Another prominent peak, Majë e Runës (6,086 ft.), north-east of Munella, is of serpentine, heavily forested nearly to the peak, with pastures below. From the summit-pass Qafë e Malit (3,250 ft.) the alternative descent by Vrrith (3,800 ft.) reaches the Drin above Dukagjin; the only bridge is at Kukës. A Roman fort at Pukë (*Epicuria*) shows that this dreary route is ancient: later the use of it was controlled by the Dukagjin chiefs. The Iballe tribe has a large enclosed basin lined with torrent-debris, with forested slopes and fertile, even marshy, floor. North and west of this, smaller tribes, Berisha, Kabashi, Puka, and Qerreti, have their

own valley territories and a common interest in the high road from Scutari to the Drin at Han i Spasit. Berisha territory itself, however, is so rugged that even donkey traffic is almost impossible. The pass west of Pukë is 2,500 feet and at Fusha e Arstit 2,400 feet. It is also in this Pukë district at Narel that copper-bearing rocks are exposed. The streams trend more westward as they approach the Drin, and the Gjadër flows alongside it till both have left the highland, separated by the forested dome of Leja (2,600 ft.). East of Iballja, around the descent of the road towards the Drin, the Mal i zi ('black mountain') gives its name to scattered families only; and the name recurs for a long strip of the west bank of the Drin between the Mollë e Lurës tributary and the Bulqizë, inhabited by Reç Dardha and Muhurri. Farther south-east Fandi occupies the enclosed headwaters of the Fan i vogël, and has access to the Drin valley below Kukës by the Q. e Kumbullës. The Fan i madh, whose headwaters belong to the Spaçi tribe, rises on the east slopes of Krrabi and is crossed by the Pukë-Arst road. Kushneni hold the dissected and rugged country north-west of the Fan i madh; Dibri, the valley of their name; and Oroshi the northern slopes of M. i Shenjt and M. i Shelbumit, south of the Fan i vogël. Orosh itself and its abbey lie on the pass into Kthellë country which is to the south along the Zall i Shebjës, a tributary of the Mat. The central shrine and annual meeting-place of the Mirditë tribes are, however, not at Orosh but at Kisha e Palit ('St. Paul's Church'), on a saddle between the two Fan streams about 7 miles farther west, with the political and administrative centre at Blinisht close by.

2. *The Western Border Ranges*

The Western Border Ranges are continuous only between the lower Mat and the Shkumbî (about 37 miles), though M. i Veljës north of the Mat, and M. i Polisit and M. i Shpatit south of the Shkumbî, have similar structure. The high Krujë ridge (3,773 ft.) begins 10 miles south of the Mat; its chief peaks are M. i Bërarit (3,990 ft.) and M. i Dajtit (5,289 ft.) overlooking Tirana. Southward again the peaks are lower. High on its seaward face is a wide terrace at about 3,200-3,600 feet, now pasture, with dense beech-forest at the base of the peaks behind.

This upland terrace along the Krujë ridge is an eroded coastline with more recent shingles and shore deposits, perhaps Pliocene. The Liktafë stream, north of Krujë town, disappears into a cavern in the limestone, and there is much karst surface with *dolines* and



13. *The Drin valley: view upstream from Vau i Dëjës*



14. *The Erzen valley: looking NW. from Tirana-Elbasan road*



15. *The lower valley of the Lum i Bençës, looking south upstream*



16. *The Vjosë: looking eastwards up the gorge of Gryka e Këlcyrës*

deserted stream-beds. The steep façade of Krujë shelters patches of *maquis*, but most of this range is oak-forest, while M. i Skanderbeut has beech woods in shady aspects.

The west-central range of M. i Skanderbeut is a plateau, culminating in M. me Gropë (5,997 ft.; 'mountain with holes' from its many *dolines*), and giving rise to copious streams which have cut gorges through the Krujë ridge—Drojë, L. i Zezës, L. i Turkuzës, L. i Tiranës, and Erzen. M. i Skanderbeut itself is densely forested, but M. me Gropë is bare moorland and rock, and the contrast is emphasized in their drainage. M. i Skanderbeut supplies the Mat with the copious Hurdhas tributary from Gallatë, while M. me Gropë is traversed by the head-stream of the Erzen. Malsi e Leshit ('Highlands of Lesh'), between the lower Fan, the Mat gorge, the lowland of Lesh, and Mal i Veljës, which is a northward prolongation of M. i Skanderbeut, is a general name for the small-featured and deeply dissected homes of the Veljë, Kryezëz, Bulgër, and Manati tribes. The survival of all this zone of independent groups, between the large confederacies of Mirdita and Matja, illustrates the advantages of the defensive in this kind of country.

Both these ranges become less conspicuous south of the Erzen, which rises far inland in M. i Skanderbeut and Malsi e Krujës, and crosses the lowland south of Tirana, because they are overlaid by more continuous *flysch*, till they reach Krrabë, which projects beyond the façade of highland Albania and separates the Erzen basin from the lower Shkumbî, dissociating the southern from the northern lowlands.

All these marginal and west-central ranges are well wooded, the lower slopes with oak, the higher with beech, whilst there are also pines on the serpentine ridges. They are consequently not populous. In the trough between M. e Krujës and M. i Skanderbeut there are only two villages, and they are divided among several Matja clans. These ranges, therefore, keep the coastlands and the Mat basin apart and emphasize the physical distinction between highland and lowland. The only road across them rises by Q. e Murrizës to 4,100 feet through difficult country. Towards the lowland, tribal structure disappears rapidly, for the clansmen have lost their common-lands to *bey*-families, and remain as their tenants or serfs. Much of Matja territory also has fallen into the hands of wealthy families, who form a feudal nobility under a few powerful houses, such as Zogolli, whose domain with its 'palace', Saraj (*Turk.* Serai) Zogollit, is between the Urakë and the Prroni i Murrës rivers.

3. *The Mat Basin*

The Mat Basin is bounded to the west by M. i Skanderbeut and M. me Gropë, to the south by the high moorland of Çermenikë, and to the east by M. i Allamanit and M. i Dêjës, where in the wide gaps which carry the roads to Debar and Peshkopi respectively, the headwaters nearly meet those of the Prroni i Murrës and Bulqizë tributaries of the Drin. Northward lies the basin of its twin tributary the Fan, occupied by Mirditë folk beyond the Kthellë and Lurë tribes on the watershed. This Fan-Mat basin is the largest tribal area in Albania, and is nearly as large as that of the whole Mirditë group. It is, however, not all occupied by Matja tribes: Kthella and Selita, though dependent on Matja administration, differ in character and religion, and the Fan basin and Fandi tribe belong to Mirdita. It may be compared to a human right hand, palm upward, with the thumb pointing south: the wrist represents the gorge through the coast range, the top joint of the thumb crooked eastward is the upper course of the Mat; the forefinger is the stream descending from Klos, the second is the Lysë Lis, the third the Urakë, the fourth the twin Fan streams. All these westward tributaries are relics of an older transverse drainage which has been progressively annexed to the Mat. The south-eastern headwaters around Martanesh are isolated by the great gorge through M. i Shullanit; but the main trough-valley, cut deep into old serpentine rocks, and lined with ferruginous Upper Tertiary sands and conglomerates, which discolour the streams, is wide and open, with numerous small tributaries from both sides. Thence it runs nearly north by west as far as Burrel, where the roads from Peshkopi, Debar, and Krujë meet that from Prosek in Selita, and then, with irregular bends westward, it receives the combined Urakë and Prroni Lozja (Shtrezhit). It then passes, by a deep gorge, through M. i Skurajvit to meet first the Hurdhas from the south and then the joint Fan-Dibër drainage from the north. Finally, by another gorge through M. i bardhë, at the north end of the Krujë ridge, the Mat emerges into the lowland and finds its sinuous way through Bregu i Matit to the sea.

The floor of the main valley, 40 miles from north to south by 17 from east to west, stands about 1,000 feet above the sea, with steep terraces and plateaux dissected by side-streams. Its reddish clays and marls are sterile, with scrub-pasture and stunted oaks, but on the high ground the rainfall maintains beeches and pines. The main river is 400 feet or so below the valley floor in an over-deepened bed, but along the floor are patches



17. *The Vijosë: looking west from eastern end of Gryka e Këlcyrës*



18. *The headwaters of the Cem: looking NW.*



19. *Lotaj village on the western slopes of the Shalë valley. M. i Korbrit in middle distance*



20. *Liqen i Hotit: looking south from near Mihaj village*

of cultivation with isolated farms, and small villages lie higher on the spurs.

4. *The Lake-region*

Like the Drin valley, the lake-region, which it drains, lies only partly within Albania, and has very small place in its economy. The sunken trough in which the Black Drin flows is continued southward by the deeper depression in which Lake Ochrida lies, between Jablanica and Malet e Mokrës westward, and the steep narrow ridge of Galiçica to the east. The wide plains of Korçë and Kolonjë, to the south, are drained respectively by the Devoll and the Osum. East of Galiçica, in a similar trough, lie Lakes Prespa and Little Prespa, likewise traversed by the Albanian frontier, and bounded eastward by the Baba range which is the watershed between Adriatic and Aegean.

Lake Ochrida (*Alb.* Liqen i Ohrit, *Serb.* Ohridsko Jezero) lies partly in Yugoslavia, north of Lin and east of Sveti Naum. It is oval, $18\frac{3}{4}$ miles north to south, $9\frac{1}{4}$ miles east to west; area $104\frac{1}{4}$ sq. miles, surface-level 2,280 feet; greatest depth 935 feet, average 493 feet. As most of the shore is limestone, there is little sediment, and as most of the water is supplied from Lake Prespa by deep springs it is blue and very clear: transparency 46–67 feet. The outlet, to the north-west, is to the Drin gorge, over a low sill spread with alluvium, at Struga. Westward the Jablanica planina is steep fronted; Malet e Mokrës, south of this, descends less abruptly to Pogradec. On the east the Galiçica ridge is continued northward to the Stogovo planina. The north shore is bordered by the plain of Ohrid and Struga, alluvial and liable to flood, since the Drin is becoming silted, but this is being remedied by dredging. There are reed-beds in the shallows alongshore. Much of the lowland is under cereals, vegetables, tobacco, and many vines, with orchards of apple and pear. Many sheep are reared, with oxen, buffaloes, horses, and goats. There are two towns, Ohrid on a limestone hill, Struga astride the Drin, with a bridge. The south shore, from Pogradec to Sveti Naum, is open plain, rising gently to a low watershed towards Liqen i Maliqit, the flooded depression in the plain of Korçë. Pogradec has fisheries, roads to Sveti Naum, Korçë, Qukës in the Shkumbî valley, and along the lake-shore to Lin and Struga. The great Orthodox shrine Monastir i Shën Naumit (*Serb.* Sveti Naum) is in Yugoslav territory, but Orthodox Albanians have right of pilgrimage to it.

There is a considerable fishing industry with sturdy old-fashioned sailing-boats and motor craft, but except Pogradec and Lin the fishing-

grounds and fishing-villages are in Yugoslavia, whither most of the catch is sent.

Lake Prespa (*Alb.* Liqen i Prespës; *Serb.* Prespansko jezero; *Gk.* Límni Megáli Présa) is the easternmost basin of Adriatic drainage; parts lie within Yugoslavia, Greece, and Albania. It was formerly joined with Lake Little Prespa to the south-west. Its greatest length is $18\frac{3}{4}$ miles north to south; width $10\frac{1}{2}$ miles; area $104\frac{1}{4}$ sq. miles; greatest depth 177 feet; only its south-western gulf is Albanian. On the west Galiçica (7,400 ft.) descends steeply to the shore. On the north the alluvial Resan plain lies below 2,950 feet above sea-level and less than 164 feet above the lake, with swampy shore and small streams intersecting meadow with scattered trees: in its pastures and cultivation it resembles the plain of Ochrida. There is no surface outlet, but water passes underground to Lake Ochrida; formerly it drained through Lake Little Prespa into the upper Devoll; the level is still sinking. The water is yellowish-green; transparency only 23–26 feet. The natives neither navigate nor fish, but boats are brought overland by fishermen from Ohrid. The natural access to this district is from Bitolj or by the Bukovo pass (3,871 ft.) from Lake Ochrida. The road from Korçë to Resan follows the western shore, with a low pass across the frontier ridge above Stenje.

Lake Little Prespa (*Alb.* Liqen i Prespës së vogël; *Gk.* Límni Mikrá Présa) is $11\frac{1}{4}$ miles long; $2\frac{1}{2}$ miles wide; area $19\frac{1}{4}$ sq. miles; level 2,794 feet; depth 26 feet. Only the southern end is in Albania. It is separated from Lake Prespa by a narrow strip of alluvium. Though the former southward outlet (Gryka e Ugut) is also cut off, the level is still sinking, through underground channels to springs near Tren, whence a brook flows into the Devoll. The south-eastern shore is steep but carries a road to the frontier at Zagradec; north-westward a side valley descends from Rakickë.

5. *The Drin Trough and the Frontier Ranges east of it*

Geographically the Drin trough is a coherent natural feature, and is conveniently described downstream and northwards from Lake Ochrida to the points where the river first ceases to mark the frontier, and then turns westward to traverse the Northern Highlands. It has been divided by minor obstacles, rock-barriers and glacial moraines, into a series of basins floored with gravel and silt, and fertile, while several masses of hard rock along its sides, through which it flows in gorges, are spurs or outliers of the Pelagonian block.

East of Lake Ochrida, and northwards overlooking Struga, where



21. *Enclosed valley at Iballe: looking west over the village*



22. *Open valley at Sermë: looking NW. over the village. River Drin on the right*



23. *View eastwards over the Kastrat range from a point in Yugoslavia*



24. *Çermenikë mountains: looking NW. over village of Zdrâjšë*



25. *Mallakastër: a typical view*

the Drin leaves the lake, the steep escarpment of Belica and Jablanica consists of serpentine resting on Triassic limestones and capped with Cretaceous. West of this wall rises M. i Shebenikut (7,150 ft.), on the west slope of which rise the Prroni i Osmanlit and other right-bank feeders of the Shkumbî. North of this ridge the Gollobordë plateau is overlaid by the *krasta* limestone, a variant of the Çermenikë *flysch*, with rugged karst surface, and utterly barren, but the secondary rocks reappear farther north on both sides of the Drin in M. i Runjës (6,600 ft.) and Korab (9,000 ft.). The Trias outcrop crosses the Drin near Kukës and marks the north slope of the White Drin valley.

On the east side, towards the Treska tributary of the Vardar, Stogovo planina (6,500 ft.) lies some miles from the Drin valley, and is open dry moorland till the long trough of the Radika comes in from the north-east. Then Korab stands nearer the Drin, rugged, and sterile, on the Palaeozoic margin. From this steeper slope, facing the prevalent rain-wind, and unprotected by forest, so much hill-wash comes down that the whole valley-floor of sandy loam slopes westward, and the Drin flows close to the western escarpment.

The long basin of Debar lies at about 1,500–1,600 feet above the sea and has patches of old lake deposit into which the Drin has cut deep meanders. There is much cultivation, but the boundary cuts off Debar itself and other villages east of the river from their pastures on the western slope. Debar has medicinal sulphur springs, but since the 1924 delimitation Peshkopi is becoming the market and administrative centre of the Albanian section of Debar district.

On the west side, M. i Homeshit (4,720 ft.), of Triassic limestone, is steep and well wooded; the Homesh tribe occupies the Drin bank as far south as Debar. This is the southernmost of the Drin valley tribes, and through its country the Bulqizë valley carries the road from Debar to Burrel on the Mat for Krujë and Scutari. The western slopes are wooded, but the eastern rainswept and very bare.

About 5 miles north of its entry into Albania the Drin passes into the basin of Peshkopi through a short gorge, between spurs of M. i Homeshit and Korab. The floor at about 1,500 feet is of gravel, liable to floods, but full of ploughland, vineyards, and pasture. The villages lie high on the slopes, connected by the road from Debar to Kukës. Peshkopi town is about 4 miles east of the river, on the foothills of M. i Deshatit. The winter here is cold, but in spite of late frosts there is abundant fruit, and in some years wine is made. The basin, about 12 miles from north to south, is closed northward by spurs of Runja e Lurës and the plateau on which Korab rises.

The valley is therefore almost a gorge from Xhedik (Nezhaj) to the confluence of the Mollë e Lurës from the west below Domaj. On the valley floor are Kastrioti tribesmen (distinct from Kastrati north of Scutari) with Ploshtani and Trojaku clans of the Lumë tribe on the eastern slopes, and Muhurri on the forested slope of Runja. Farther north the forest of Runja fades out, and north of M. i Allamanit the plateau becomes broader, in Lura country between the main Mat valley and the Mirditë tribe of Spaçi, where Dêja rises to 7,300 feet with a steep escarpment eastward. East of the Peshkopi basin, M. i Deshatit (7,800 ft.) and Korab (9,000 ft.) rise abrupt and bare. The upper part of Korab is massive gypsum, capped by white marble, which explains its sterility above the dense belt of firs. The same plateau continues north of Korab at 6,900–7,500 feet with alpine grazing, and becomes the basement from which rises the Yugoslavian Sar planina (8,900 ft.). It is of Palaeozoic rocks, massive, lofty, strongly folded, and quite independent of the Drin valley structures; it is, in fact, the western margin of the Pelagonian crust-block. Its relation to the Albanian frontier ranges is obscure, and goes back to a geological phase before the Dinaric region had been uplifted into mountain structure.

North of the Peshkopi basin is another and higher barrier which reaches 3,300 feet near Kalis and Vilë below the Arrn limestone plateau east of M. e Zepës. The Drin traverses this barrier at about 1,300 feet, receiving the Mollë e Lurës river from the west at the narrowest point of the gorge. The only habitations are on small terraces on the screes, several belonging to the same villages and clans, but involved in feuds with the next. On the plateaux eastward are larger villages along the pack-road to Kukës, which finds the deep side-torrents more passable than the main gorge.

Farther north again near Ujmishtë and Vilë the trias outcrop crosses the gorge, which, at Gjabricë, is a cañon 1,970 feet deep. At Surroj the gorge enters serpentine rocks and widens into the Kukës basin, where it is joined by the White Drin and the Lumë. Kukës is a bridge-town at the over-deepened junction (150–200 ft. deep) on the west side of the plain, arable and pasture, above which are wide terraces around Surroj on the uplands of Majë e Runës. The two fine Turkish bridges at Kukës, on the main road from Scutari to Prizren, were destroyed in 1914–1918, and the new temporary modern one is now the only permanent bridge over the Drin between Struga and Scutari. But unladen animals can ford in several places, and dug-out boats and inflated goatskins are used: there are also boat-bridges on the road from Shëpenzë to Peshkopi and to Debar.



26. *Looking northwards to Lushnje*



27. *Prroni i thatë: view NNE. over the arid stony plain*



28. *The Kolonjë plateau, between Leskovik and Korçë*



29. *Boboshticë, about 4 miles south of Korçë. Looking ESE. to the pass*

East of the plain, the steep slopes of Mal i Gjalicës (8,435 ft.) beyond the Lumë gorge, which has its wide headwaters beyond the frontier around Vranište, are forested with oak and hazel below, and with beech and pines up to 6,000 feet. South and east of these peaks broad plateaux extend eastward to the Gora district, to the culminating heights of Teja, and to the Šar planina.

The main Drin trough is thenceforward represented structurally by the White Drin valley to Prizren and the Jakovë (Đakovica) basin; the Black Drin turning north-west and then west to its great gorge. The White Drin has cut a deep recent valley in the gravel filling of this trough, which is pasture with some cultivated plots. As the subsoil is porous, the villages are up at the springs in the valley sides, and on the western terrace of Surroj and Mamz.

West of the plain of Kukës, the peaks of the central highland, M. e Runës (6,000 ft.) and M. e madhe (5,300 ft.), lie even farther west, with the Qafë e Kumbullës leading between them into the Fan i vogël. In the Kukës plain, as before, the Drin follows the western margin (1,300 ft.), and is incised 100–300 feet in the alluvial floor, which has arable land and pasture, but lacks water. The villages as usual lie high, near springs and snow-fed streams.

Below Kukës the united Drin traverses another rock-barrier and enters the Krumë basin, receiving considerable side-streams on either hand. Being cut in serpentine, this basin is wider and less abruptly bounded, sloping up to the frontier ridge eastward, where M. i Pushtrikut (6,780 ft.; not Bështriq) is capped by a limestone outlier of the Dêjë plateau, with an old karst surface. The Krumë basin has a deep filling of Tertiary sands and conglomerates, continued to the foot of the Dukagjin highland. Along the west edge of this filling the Drin cuts deeply, receiving several side-streams which dissect the valley floor into plateaux on which the villages of the Krumë tribe, and their fields, lie isolated by the forested gorges. The headwaters of the Krumë river, however, belong to Bytyçi.

6. *The Frontier Range north of the White Drin*

North of this Krumë basin Malsi e Jakovës carries the frontier along the White Drin watershed northward. It is a bare mass of red serpentine, emerging above large and pasturable spurs, which limit the Valbonë basin eastward. Its abrupt western margin is the limestone edge of the North Albanian Highland, and its floor a Tertiary filling like that of Krumë, but not so deeply dissected by its three main streams, Valbonë, Tropojë, and Bistricë. Beyond the frontier,

which turns west to enclose this basin, are the headwaters of the Danubian Lim, the southernmost tributary of the Morača. Above the confluence of the Valbonë with the Drin a narrow gorge secludes the upper basin, and below it the augmented Drin enters its own great gorges through the margin of the North Albanian Alps. Krasniqi villages combine cultivation on the valley floor with alpine summer pasture in the highland. Formerly they marketed at Đakovica, easily accessible on the White Drin, but since the delimitation of 1924 they have a two-day journey to Scutari.

North-west of the Krumë basin a series of highlands from M. e Sukit and M. e Plashit to Kodër e Luzhës is drained through the Valbonë to the Drin, and occupied by Bytyçi and Gashi tribes. Between these highlands and the precipitous edge of the Albanian Alps the Tropojë and Cernic tributaries of the Valbonë are in Bytyçi territory and well populated; but the headwaters, cutting deep into the limestone plateau east and west of Shkëlzen, belong to Gashi, who, like Kruma, are members of the wide Hasi group. The peaks here rise to Đaravica (8,700 ft.) and Bogićevica (8,200 ft.) on the watershed between Adriatic and Danube. By the Qafë e Morinës pass there is transit to Potok in the Đakovica district. All this highland is known as the Malsi e Jakovës.

The whole Drin trough is thus transitional between the Central and Northern Highlands, all exclusively Albanian, and the frontier regions farther east which have been alternately Albanian and Slav. From the lake district of Ochrida and Prespa to the White Drin, and especially from Debar to Prizren, there is a strong natural frontier, Stogovo planina, Korab, Gora, and Koritnik, but this range veers north-eastward, round the Vardar headwaters to Ljuboten (8,200 ft.) overlooking Skoplje; and north of Prizren the whole Konov basin, extending almost to Mitrovica, is drained by the White Drin, separated by low hills from the Sitnica trough north of Uroševac. North of the White Drin there is again a strong natural barrier from Mitrovica to Andrijevisa, except where the Lim headwaters form the anomalous enclave of Gusinje.

7. The Central Ranges between the Drin and Fan-Mat Drainage

West of the Drin trough the structure of the Central Highlands differs north and south of a line from Debar to Elbasan, and this fact explains many contrasts between north and south Albania generally. Between Debar, Elbasan, and Lake Ochrida the older serpentines and their tabular cap of secondary limestone are overlaid

by a thick mass of Tertiary *flysch*, which has resisted erosion and forms a lofty plateau, the drainage being distributed, northwards by the Zall i Okshtunit to the Debar section of the Drin, eastward between Jablanica and Raduq to the upper Drin, north-west to the head of the Mat, and west and south to the Prroni i Osmanlit and Rrapon streams of the Shkumbî. Being impervious and very barren, and bounded by steeply furrowed *maquis*, this Çermenikë highland, with the Gollobordë karst-district which adjoins it north-eastward, is almost uninhabited except by summer pastorals, and is traversed only by the road from Librazhd at the bend of the Shkumbî, to Shëpenzë at the junction of the Zall i Okshtunit and the L. i Bulqizës, and this is now a dead-end, because here the Drin is the frontier, and is only crossed either farther south for Debar or farther north for Peshkopi. Other masses of *flysch* extend westward beyond the Rrapon basin into Krrabë, and also south-west of the upper Mat, with a summit at 5,997 feet.

North of this overload of *flysch* the highlands between the Mat basin and the upper Drin consist essentially of serpentine, with remnants of a Cretaceous limestone plateau, and patches of late Tertiary beds on M. i Shebenikut. They show traces of glaciation above 5,900 feet, and on the flanks of the ranges there has been much post-glacial erosion. Between the Fan i madh, Fan i vogël, and Urakë, in the Kthellë and Selitë districts, this erosion has gone far to make the country uninhabitable. The valleys are narrow gorges, usually filled by the streams, and the few settlements and tracks lie on the upper slopes, up to 3,600 feet above Çurkaj near Macukull, while the summits (4,000–5,000 ft.) are deserted. The limestone uplands have karst scenery and *dolines*, with much forest up to 6,000 feet on M. i Shenjt, and pastures above. The east face of Nezhda e Lurës has been severely glaciated. Farther north, in M. i Shenjt and M. e Zepës, the limestone plateau becomes thicker (3,000–3,700 ft.), the gorges deeper, and the slopes more terraced, but M. e Zepës has still a summit plateau. On its eastern face the serpentine rises to 3,000–3,300 feet with only a thin cap of limestone; the whole series therefore dips westward and owes its actual profile to denudation. East of this Central Highland, the outcrop of the Trias limestone in M. i Homeshit and M. i Runjës, overlooking the Drin, is dissected out of a plateau lying at 5,500 feet, with karst landscape and traces of glaciation. M. i Runjës and Dêja e Lurës are parallel crests enclosing the Lurë territory, a trough of alpine pastures.

Transverse gaps and streams break all this Central Highland into

masses. The valley of the Lum i Bulqizës, from its source east of Klos to Shëpenzë, with wide floor and forest on its shady south side, is populous, and carries the old track from Tirana to Debar. Farther north the Qafë e Murrës (3,000 ft.) between Dêja and M. i Kreshit drains both to the Drin by Prroni i Murrës and to the Mat by Lysa Lis. The Urakë and Mollë headwaters meet on a similar pass (3,200 ft.), draining through narrow gorges the large upland plain of Fusha e Lurës (3,600 ft.), which is limestone. The Urakë too rises in a copious karst-spring, and its upper valley is dry.

West of the Drin trough, however, and east of the M. e Krujës—M. i Dajtit façade of highland Albania, the westward drainage—Fan, Mat, and Shkumbî—does not always cut back to the structural ‘divide’. The reason for this is partly that the Central Highlands consist of several parallel folds, partly that from the Mat–Urakë basin southwards the folded strata are deeply overlaid with *flysch*, and in Gollobordë by the peculiar *krasta* limestone. It is almost a matter of chance whether the highland remnants of older drainage basins have been annexed eastward or westward. Farther north, between the Drin and the Fan i madh, the Iballe basin has been already noted. South of the Fan i vogël the Mollë tributary of the Drin has captured a considerable trough—the secluded country of Lura tribe—lying north–south between Runja and Nezhda e Lurës. The headstreams of the Urakë have annexed a more westerly trough to the Mat basin, giving to Kthella clans the minutely dissected borderland between Mirdita and Matja territories. South of Runja, which divides the Muhurr district from Matja, the Prroni i Murrës drains to the Drin a similar headwater. All this district is inaccessible and very sparsely inhabited by many small tribes, Lura, Selita, and Kthella; they pasture flocks on the plateau, but there is little agriculture, and no seasonal movement of flocks from other districts, as in southern Albania.

Immediately west of Debar the L. i Bulqizës has cut so deeply between M. i Allamanit and M. i Bulqizës that its headstreams interlace with those of the Mat and with the Rrapon tributary of the Shkumbî, and carry the old road from Burrel to Shëpenzë. South of the Mat basin, however, tribal territories become indistinct. A long tributary of the Bulqizë cuts deep and far into the Gollobordë plateau and meets headstreams of the Mat east of Martanesh, but is very sparsely peopled. South of this the Rrapon, flowing south to the Shkumbî in a longitudinal trough of the kind already described, has annexed a western basin, Zall i Shëmilit, which shares a watershed



30. *The plain of Korçë, looking NW. to the town*



31. *Fusha e Kododeshit. View east towards Q. e Thanës*



32. *Kneta e Tërbufit: view eastwards, Valona-Rrogozhinë road behind on a level with grass-tops*



33. *Lake Maliq: view ENE. over south of lake*

with the Erzen, while eastward the Prroni i Osmanlit drains the eastern slope of Jablanica and gives access to the Drin.

8. Çermenikë and Gollobordë

North of the upper Shkumbî basin the Çermenikë highland is isolated on all sides by its steep escarpments and forested slopes. There is forest also on the uplands, especially beech on the limestone and Austrian pine on the serpentines. But most of the district is *flysch* and pasture, dissected by valleys which become impassable gorges as they descend. The villages and scattered farms lie high and cultivate maize and vines. In the Gollobordë plateau, east of Çermenikë, both *flysch* and serpentine are replaced by the *krasta* limestone with karst landscape, very bare up to 5,000 feet but forested above. Swallow-holes and *dolines* engulf the drainage, and the few villages are grouped round springs. The plateau margin towards the Drin has deep gorges in serpentine, opening into moorland and oak-scrub.

South of Gollobordë the watershed rises into the Jablanica ridge, narrow and lofty (7,402 ft.), overlooking the Drin with a steep escarpment, and drained westward to the Rapon and upper Shkumbî by Prroni i Osmanlit, to the south of which stands M. i Shebenikut (7,152 ft.), a spur of the Belica continuation of Jablanica. The ridges here are bare, and the valleys have beech-forest, but few inhabitants, and no tribal organization. M. i Shebenikut has been deeply glaciated eastward but has forest up to 6,000 feet: westward there are terraced moorlands with some irrigation. Where this border-range swerves eastward into Lake Ochrida at Lin it throws off a southern spur, Gur i Pishkashit, which divides the middle Shkumbî from its multiple headwaters west of Malet e Mokrës, which overlooks Pogradec on the lake-shore.

C. THE SOUTHERN HIGHLANDS

In Greek Epirus, the region adjoining Albania south-eastward, the outer ranges of the Dinaric system are lofty chains all trending from north-west to south-east, and nearly parallel to the general trend of the Adriatic shore, while in Corfu (Kerkyra), and on the mainland between the Kalamas (Thiamis) and Acheron rivers, parallel 'Ionian' chains emerge from the Adriatic. All are composed of massive limestone anticlines, with an overload of *flysch* eroded into troughs between them. The same general structure is continuous

throughout Albanian Epirus, but is interrupted by a great transverse dislocation from Valona north-eastward to the Shkumbî gorge above Elbasan. Even north-west of this break, as already noted, the same anticlinal ranges may be traced as far as the coast at Capes Lagi, Pali, and Rodoni.

This well-marked structure distinguishes Albanian Epirus from the rest of Albania. It is closely followed by its drainage system, which has eroded the *flysch* and exposed the anticlinal limestones, and it has probably left its mark on the upper courses of the Devoll and Shkumbî, though these have long since been engraved deep into older rocks. In conformity with this structure, the landscape, resources, and human exploitation of the Albanian part of Epirus is essentially continuous with the Greek; evergreen scrub (*maquis*) on the coast giving place (except in sheltered positions) to oakwoods on the *flysch*, and to karst moorland on the limestone ridges, with beeches only in patches on sheltered northward slopes, and considerable areas of alpine pasture. This landscape in turn has facilitated the spread of Greek culture, Greek language, and Orthodox religion north-westward into a district where the characteristic Albanian tribalism has become disintegrated, though the ties of kinship and tribal tradition are still potent and dominate the political sentiments of the people.

The range formed in the Central Highlands by Dêja, M. i Allamanit, and M. i Bulqizës is continued, south of the Çermenikë-Gollobordë plateaux, by M. i Shebenikut and after a wide interval (marked by the road from Elbasan by the upper Shkumbî) to Malet e Mokrës, after which it sinks into the open Kamja moorland between the south end of Lake Ochrida and the sources of the Shkumbî. It forms the east margin of the upper Shkumbî valley, but farther south-east the Shkumbî trough merges with the Drin trough in the basins of Lake Maliq and Korçë, which are drained by the Devoll.

1. *The Upper Shkumbî Valley and the Plain of Korçë*

The lake district of south-eastern Albania, like the Drin trough, results from fractures and subsidences along the junction of the Dinaric folded ranges with the Pelagonian crust-block, and the same lines of fracture may be traced far to the south. The western margin of Lake Ochrida, along the most westerly of them, cuts off the Jablanica-Belica ridge obliquely, and Malet e Mokrës, overlooking both Pogradec and the Shkumbî valley, prolongs the range of M. i Shebenikut, M. i Bulqizës, and M. i Allamanit. The Shkumbî trough



34. *Little Lake Prespa: the former drainage channel at south end of lake*



35. *Lake Butrinto, looking NE. towards Delvinë*



36. *Lake Ochrida, looking north along west shore*



37. *Lake Ochrida, looking NE. Sveti Naum monastery in foreground*

therefore corresponds structurally with the upper Mat basin, and M. i Polisit, west of it, with the M. i Skanderbeut range, though this continuity is obscured in the Çermenikë *flysch* plateau. The lower Shkumbî between Labinot and Elbasan has cut a transverse gorge north of M. i Shpatit and M. i Polisit, and collected the drainage of the upper Shkumbî and of the Rrapon with its sprawling tributaries. Upstream and southward the Shkumbî valley widens, because its filling of Tertiary sandstones has not yet been eroded. These sandy soils, like those of the Mat basin, are dry and fairly fertile. Above them, on the older rocks, are sparse oaks up to 4,000 feet, with beeches above and chestnuts up to 3,000 feet west of Pogradec. The villages are mostly below the forest line. Southward from the Kamja plateau is moorland, about 3,900 feet high, with terraces down to the Devoll valley floor, 3,000 feet below.

The Shkumbî trough has been of historic and economic importance by reason of the great inland road, the Roman *Via Egnatia*, which followed the stream to Qukës (*Tres Tabernae*—‘three taverns’) and then turned east up the lateral Lingajçë ravine to the Fushë e Kododeshit plain above Lin, and so to Struga for Bitolj and Salonica. Between the upper Shkumbî and the middle valley of the Devoll the twin ranges M. i Polisit and M. i Shpatit continue the M. i Skanderbeut anticlinal, south of the Shkumbî gorge, uniting southward in Gur i Topit, where the Devoll cuts through similarly from the Korçë-Voskopojë moorland into its middle course. These ranges too are anticlines of massive Eocene and Cretaceous limestone, exposed where the *flysch* has been denuded.

In the plain of Korçë, the Shkumbî drainage is limited southwards by the Kamja plateau, which links Malet e Mokrës with Gur i Topit. The Devoll, which has a similar middle course in the trough between M. i Shpatit and Tomorr, has cut back, south of M. i Shpatit and Gur i Topit, a gorge over 3,000 feet deep, and captured what seems to have been once the headwaters of the Shkumbî or the Drin, in the wide upland basin of Korçë, a prolongation of the subsided trough of Lake Ochrida. This subsidence seems to have continued recently, for Lake Maliq (Liqen i Maliqit; 2,667 ft.), across which the Devoll flows from its source in Morava, some 7 miles south of Korçë, is not yet stabilized, and at present seems to be rising slightly: south of it is a wide marsh; eastward the plain is dissected by torrents out of the Moravë range, and their fans of debris. The landscape here is quite different from any other district of Albania. The frontier ranges, Morava and Grammos, run from north-east to south-west,

and, like Ostrovicë west of Voskopojë, consist of serpentine and *flysch* and have open moorlands with cultivated hollows. Southward the plain, drained by the Dunavec into the Liqen i Maliqit, rises gently, then sinks into the similar Kolonjë moorland, which drains into the Osum. Northward the open road from Korçë to Pogradec and Lin crosses the Devoll where it leaves the marsh at Libonik, and traverses rich pastures and crops of cereals and tobacco, with vineyards and market gardens near Pogradec. The great Orthodox shrine of Sveti Naum is deliberately left in Slav territory.

Voskopojë, surrounded by forest in its own secluded plain (5,200 ft.), lies about 10 miles west of Korçë and 6 miles south of the Devoll and the Korçë-Elbasan road. It drains by a deep gorge north-westwards into that of the Devoll.

2. *The South-eastern Highland between the Devoll and Vijosë Rivers*

South of the middle Devoll, and east of the Osum, the overload of *flysch* has been removed, and the closely folded structure of the southern highland is exposed. The limestone gables absorb the rainfall, while the *flysch* rejects it in surface streams which have excavated deep synclinal valleys. Six of the limestone peaks—M. i Tomorrit, M. e Ostrovicës, M. i Ramiës, M. i Papingut, M. i Lunxhëriës, and Qendrevica—rise above 7,000 feet. Its drainage is very complicated. The head-streams of L. i Tomorricës which flows into the Devoll, of L. i madh (Upper Osum) from Kolonjë, and of Lengarica—a side-stream of the Vijosë—interlace in moorland country which has few peaks over 5,000 feet. There are no large villages between Korçë and Voskopojë on the one hand and Tepelenë and Gjinokastër on the other. East of the Vijosë, *flysch* predominates, and where the forests have been destroyed, as around Frashër, there are areas of 'bad-lands' without vegetation. Transverse valleys, such as Lengarica and Lum i Çarshovës, which traverse the ridges north and west of Leskovik, form gorges where they cut into the limestone. They are probably remnants of an earlier river-system, like those between Stugara and the Corfu channel. There are no large forests south of the Osum, but denser thicket and scrub, and a good deal of pasture. The ranges are very sparsely peopled, but the valleys have fertile floors with villages high on the slopes where springs mark the junction of limestone and *flysch*. Maize and wheat are the principal crops, and more could be cultivated but for the reservation of pastures by villages and landlords alike. The only considerable town is Berat, where the Osum leaves the highland. Leskovik is only a junction of routes



38. *Mesozoic limestone lying on palaeozoic schists and greywackes: Drin valley, looking upstream towards Korja e Rajës*



39. *Mesozoic limestone ridge separating flysch (in the foreground) from serpentine hills beyond. Village of Sutkuq on a tributary of the Shkumbî (2 miles south of Mirakë)*



40. *Triassic limestone gorge in Drin valley above confluence of
L. i Shalës*



41. *Triassic limestone peak: Çlun i Merturit, view NW. from
3 miles east of Iballe*

from Yannina, Gjinokastër, and Valona for Korçë and for Berat. Frashër, on dry moorland, is almost wholly pastoral and Vlach. Structurally the Kolonjë basin prolongs that of Korçë southwards, but the upper Osum has captured its drainage, with that of the upper Tomorricë.

The Upper Vjosë Valley. The next range to the south-west—Shpiragri, Trebeshin, Dhëmbel, Nëmerçkë—is more complicated; for the range itself is twofold and both its ridges, Trebeshin and Shëndëlli, are intersected by the Vjosë, the upper valley of which begins far to the south beyond the Greek border, and receives the Greek river Sarandapótimos at Perat and Melissópetra on the frontier, and Lengarica, from the Kokojka-M. i Postenanit highland, on its right bank. It then turns abruptly westward through the gorge at Këlcyrë (*Gk.* Klisúra), picks up the L. i Zagorias between the two ridges, Dhëmbel and M. i Lunxhëriës, and joins the Dhrino at Tepelenë. In this upper valley, which has a wide floor of older torrent-debris, the Vjosë flows over-deepened. Its tributary L. i Leshnicës, and L. i Molishtit a tributary of the Osum, mark the continuation of the structural trough after the river has plunged into the transverse gorge at Këlcyrë. The ridge south-west of the upper Vjosë, Dhëmbel and Nëmerçkë, continued to the north-west by Trebeshin, rises to 8,200 feet and passes into Greek territory. Like the ranges described above, these are of Cretaceous limestones and chert. Their south-west face is deeply covered with glacial and diluvial breccia; but the north-eastern has been cut away by the river, steepening the slope and altering drainage and vegetation. There are pines on the limestone, devastated oaks on the *flysch*, and pasture above tree-level. This upper Vjosë valley is a distinct economic unit. The villages lie high along the junction of *flysch* and limestone, where the springs are, but the market town Përmet (3,000 pop., 960 ft.) is on the river. At Këlcyrë a castle guards the pass to Tepelenë.

Trebeshin, Dhëmbel, and Nëmerçkë Highland. South of the upper Vjosë valley, the L. i Molishtit, and the lower Osum, a long façade of limestone ridge secludes south-western Albania and Mallakastra from the south-eastern highlands. It is the first of the series of such anticlinal ridges, close pressed on each other, as far as the coast. It is only broken by the gorge of the Vjosë at Këlcyrë. Immediately south-west the next range, from Shpiragri through Shëndëlli, M. i Lunxhëriës, Bureto, and Makrikambos, is not so continuous, but accompanies it far into Greek Epirus. These ranges, being limestone, have much karst surface with *dolines*, lofty marginal escarpments up

to 3,000 feet, almost no forest, but some scanty pasture. The Shëndëlli-M. i Lunxhëriës-Bureto ridge is similar, but its steep face is to the south-west.

Between these twin ridges a narrow trough in the *flysch* is drained by L. i Zagorias, which joins the Vijosë within its gorge, and by the L. i Suhës (Pogon) stream, which is diverted into the Dhrino river at Gjinokastër through a transverse trough like that of Lengarica. These and similar transverse valleys, like the gorges of the main rivers, may be relics of earlier drainage, transverse to the Dinaric fold-system. These two districts are among the most isolated in Albania. In the Pogon valley are the most northerly Greek settlements, which become more numerous in the frontier districts and nearer the sea.

The Dhrino (Dropull) valley is deeply engraved in the *flysch* but much choked with alluvium, on which the present stream meanders, receiving little water or silt except from the L. i Suhës. Between its confluence with the L. i Kardhiqit and Tepelenë, it has been over-deepened. Its two flanks are unsymmetrical by reason of an overthrust of the limestone anticlinal. It collects more water, therefore, from Bureto than from the *flysch* slopes of Mal i gjerë. Most of the valley floor is continuously cultivated.

3. *The Coastal Ranges and Lowlands*

Gjinokastër and the Valley of the Dhrino (Southern Drin). Lying between the Zagori-Pogon trough and the Dhrino valley the range composed of M. i Lunxhëriës, Bureto (5,900 ft.), and Makrikambos (*Gk.* 'long field'; 5,500 ft.) passes beyond the Greek frontier, but to north-west it is continued by M. Shëndëlli (5,900 ft.) and after a wide interval by Shpiragri, overlooking Berat and the junction of the Devoll with the Osum. Here the north-west termination of the Epirus mountain-system is abrupt, on a fault-line from Valona to Elbasan; but its trend after subsidence is marked by low crests of limestone in the Myzeqe lowland, on both sides of the Seman (lower Devoll) and as far north as Cape Pali. The steep limestone escarpment above the Dhrino valley is due to overthrust, which becomes more marked in the ranges nearer the coast: here *flysch* actually underlies the older limestone. This movement, still in progress, accounts for earthquakes such as that of Tepelenë in 1920. The highland formed by Makrikambos (5,900-4,800 ft.), which connects Nëmerçkë with Bureto round the head of the Pogon valley, makes a strong frontier possible between the important road-gaps at Perat and Kakavi (*Gk.* Kakavia), on the Vijosë and Dhrino



42. *Serpentine slopes of M. e Hekuravë. View SW. across valley of L. i Currajt towards Nikaj range*



43. *Bare serpentine and scrub-covered triassic shales near Korthpulë, south of Gomsiqe valley*



44. *Serpentine: on road from Boboshticë to Dardhë*



45. *Limestone peaks of M. Ethe, near M. Jezerce*

respectively. High on the spur between the L. i Suhës gorge and the main Dhrino valley is the prosperous village of Libohovë.

The Dhrino region was large and populous in antiquity and is still fertile, with irrigated maize-crops and numerous olive-groves, but in summer the river dries into pools above the confluence with the L. i Suhës. Gjinokastër (*class.* Amantia; *Gk.* Argyrocastro) is the metropolis of Albanian Epirus, and lies on the lower slopes of Mal i gjerë below Ali Pasha's castle. Its administrative district borders that of Korçë, through which it trades with Greece and Austria. Its merchants are cultivated, and, with its industrials and officials, still live in the Turkish town. There are no villages on its plain, except Palokastër; the country folk live higher, on the *flysch* outcrop around the springs. But there are Greek villages on the left slope of the valley.

Below Palokastër high spurs on both sides of the valley restrict it to a gorge as far as the confluence with the Vjosë; on the left bank the escarpment of the Kurvelesh plateau (5,200 ft.) is precipitous. The river-bed falls in this gorge from about 650 to 350 feet. The Gjinokastër basin is thus abruptly fenced off from Tepelenë and the region of Mallakastra, while it lies open to Greek Epirus and Yannina.

Below Tepelenë the slopes of Shëndëlli and Gribaswerve apart and are gentler. The valley has a deep filling of late Tertiary marls and sandstones at about 630 feet, and the landscape though hilly is no longer mountainous, and belongs to Mallakastra. The Vjosë valley is still over-deepened, with terraces on both banks as it swerves westward round the base of Griba. Tepelenë, on a rock terrace 130 feet high, keeps the pass, 2 miles below the confluence of the Dhrino with the Vjosë.

South-west of the Dhrino the next limestone ridge, from Stugara (3,900–5,900 ft.) on the Greek frontier, through Mal i gjerë, west of Gjinokastër, widens into the Kurvelesh plateau (4,900 ft.) and then into Griba (6,900 ft.). This section is a real plateau with rugged karst-features, *dolines*, and narrow marginal canyons. It is thus isolated and self-contained, and around Gusmar there is even a distinct physical type, blonde, blue-eyed, short-headed, and slender, with many epic memories. Some cherts and older beds and much yellow volcanic matter are exposed below the limestone, with gypsum, mineral veins, and warm springs at Dhrovjan south of Delvinë. There has been some disturbance here, but the structure is still essentially a gable-fold overthrown to westward, like the other ranges, and dissected into precipitous longitudinal ridges.

The more tabular structure of Griba and Kurvelesh is the first

indication of the tectonic change from the rhythmical folds between the Drin trough and the Vjosë to the more complicated 'Ionian' structure, throwing up rocks older than the *flysch* and Eocene-Cretaceous limestones. These 'Ionian' ridges extend to the Adriatic and sink into it with a more westerly trend, reappearing in Italy in Monte Gargano. Consequently beyond the Shushicë valley the coastland of Laberia e sipërme has a different composition and appearance from the L. i Bistricës and Pavla basins farther south around Delvinë and Konispol.

The Delvinë District. Here Eocene limestone ridges emerge from beneath the *flysch*, as farther inland, but associated with Cretaceous limestones and cherts. But the longitudinal troughs between them are interconnected by transverse gorges, probably the relics of an older south-westward drainage. The river system is therefore complicated, and is further modified by the deep transverse subsidence in which lie Liqeni i Butrintit (Lake Butrinto) and Liqeni i Rezës. There are three principal streams. L. i Leshnicës rises in Stugara (which marks the Greek frontier), traverses three ranges, M. e Shendenikut, Sitena, and Saraqin, by gorges, and falls into a similar stream, the Pavlë, from the south-east; but the combined Pavlë river fails to penetrate the coast-range—though an ancient gorge may be recognized above Kotarto bay—and discharges into marshes at the south end of Lake Butrinto. Of this coast-range the seaward slope south of Butrinto has been assigned to Greece, as it is an old possession of Corfu, but by this demarcation Konispol is deprived of half its territory and ruined. The Bistricë, farther north, breaks out of the high ground by a gorge through the Koqino Lithari ridge and crosses the Vurg lowland between Delvinë and Butrinto, towards the L. i Kalasës below the coast-range inland of Sarandë, both streams watering the alluvial plain by several channels. The L. i Kalasës, wholly longitudinal, rises far to the north-west, in M. i Pikës, and drains the upper half of the Butrinto-Delvinë depression.

Before approaching the Bistricë the L. i Kalasës receives a large tributary from the glens of Mal i gjerë, traversing the foothills between M. i Kostarit and Kostar. Here Delvinë stands on a spur between side-streams, a prosperous market town with landowners' residences. On the marshy plain towards the L. i Kalasës graze many cattle of Italian breed and horses mostly owned by Vlachs. In classical times greater population and prosperity are attested by Greek towns at Sarandë (*class.* Onchesmus) and Finiq (Phoenice), a temple at Pecë, and several fortified sites. The contrast of vegetation between the coast ranges and the

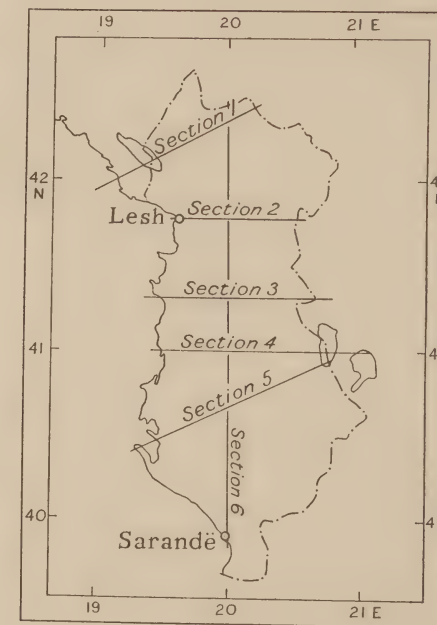
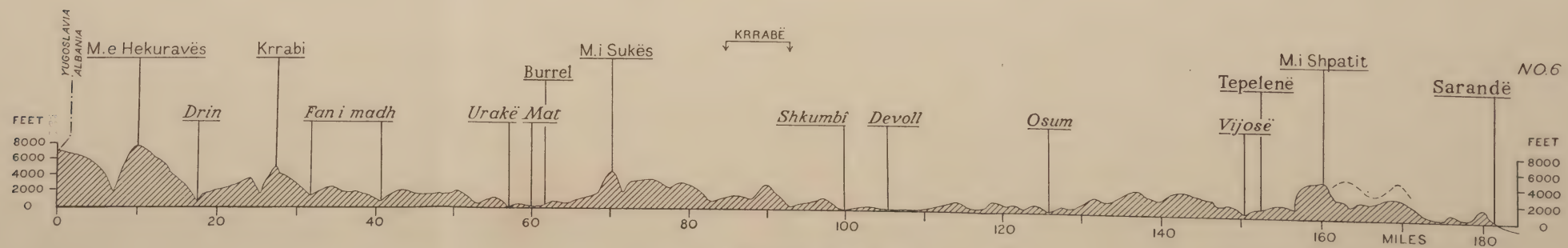
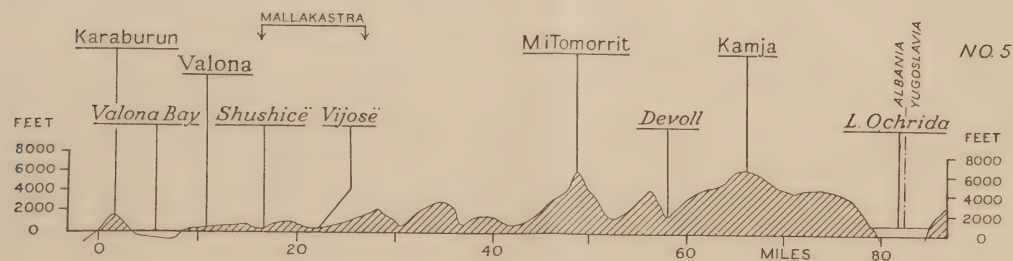
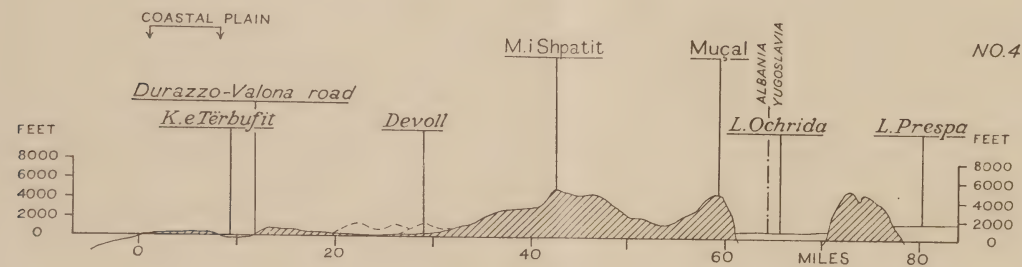
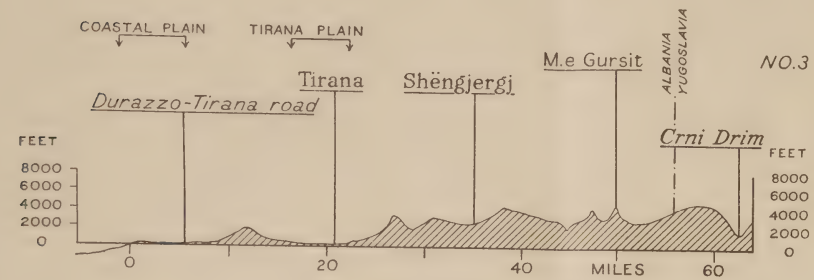
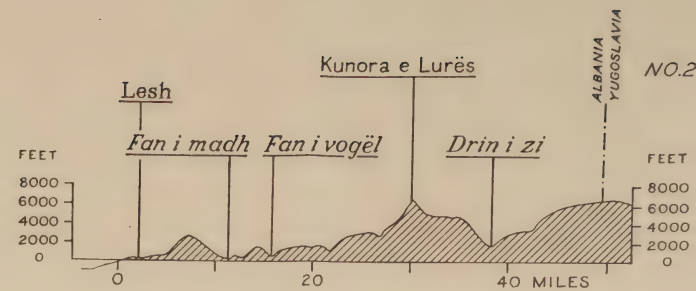
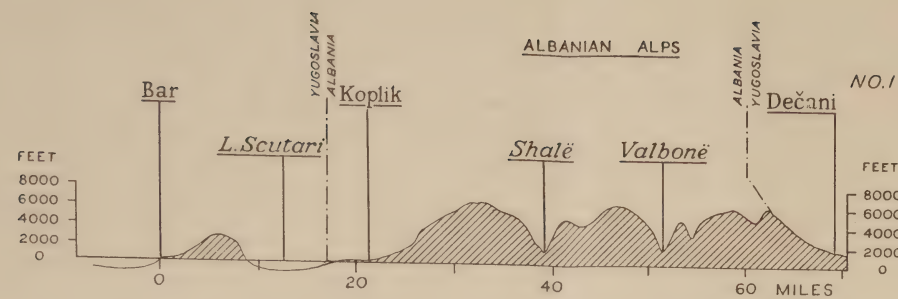


FIG. 7. Topographical sections

interior is great, and becomes greater northward into Laberia, where sea-warmth is reinforced by the gulf of Valona. There are oaks high on Cape Kiephali and on the Saraqin ridge (3,000 odd ft.), but evergreen scrub predominates, with wild olive, laurel, and cistus, in thorny and impenetrable thickets. The lowland is a forest of elm, poplar, and sycamore, with reeds and swampy undergrowth. Cultivation is restricted by malaria and by the reservation of winter pastures for the Vlachs of the interior.

The Albanian Riviera. North of the deep coast-ravine at Borsh Laberia e sipërme, a highland of 'Ionian' structure, enfolds the Çipin-Galisht-Lavan coast-ridge with older strata, much fractured, and still liable to earthquakes. Confronting Griba across the Shushicë tributary of the Vijosë, M. i Çikës is an anticline of Triassic beds, including dolomite, which is continued in Lungara (over 6,000 ft.) towards Valona, and reappears southwards also at Shëngjergj (*Gk.* Agios Georgios) on Lake Butrinto; and a longitudinal dislocation forms the L. i Dukatit valley with the Llogora pass at its head to the coast-strip or 'Albanian Riviera', where Himarë, Port Palermo, and Borsh lie. Here, wherever there is water, advantage has been taken of the sheltered position to cultivate Mediterranean tree crops, and the district is very prosperous. Himarë lies high and secluded, with copious water and good wine, as well as oranges, olives, and wheat. Its seven large villages are prosperous and cultured, with a long tradition of self-government under Turkish overlordship, and of turbulence till they were disarmed by Ali Pasha in 1804. West of Llogora gap, Rreza e Kanalit, a ridge of Cretaceous limestone, dips steeply into open sea. Landward M. i Çikës, also of limestone, is deeply embedded in the *flysch* of the Shushicë trough. It is bare below, but has some pines above the pass, and carries snow on its north side far into the summer. On its sea-face is a terrace at 1,600 feet, and open beaches at Spile and Port Palermo, where Caesar landed in 48 B.C.

The Dukat valley also is cut in *flysch* overlying the Trias limestones of the ridges, and shows traces of an older shore-line, with a great bluff at the west end of the Llogora pass. The wide alluvium at the head of Valona bay indicates further upheaval, but there are no terraces in the hard limestone of C. Linguetta (*Alb.* Kep i Gjuhëzës). This promontory, over 2,700 feet at its highest point and separated from Rreza e Kanalit, whose summits reach 5,000 feet, has an overload of Miocene deposits, eroded, fertile, and populous towards the bay. The upper Shushicë valley is divided by the confused limestone ridge of M. i Çorajt, and has two passes over into the 'Riviera', to Port Palermo and Borsh.

Mallakastra. Between the lower courses of the Seman and the Vjosë the parallel ranges of Albanian Epirus sink abruptly, and are only traceable north-westward by sporadic outcrops. This subsidence is ancient, for limestones and *flysch* alike are smothered in Tertiary sands and shales, themselves folded and even overthrust in the Luftinjë valley which leads south into the Vjosë at Tepelenë. It divides an eastern and loftier district within the bend of the Seman, culminating in the Shpiragri ridge (3,947 ft.) from a lower, which passes gently into the Myzeqe coastland. Another dislocation runs north from Selenicë. Long protected by later deposits, the limestone outcrops here are little eroded, though there are *dolines* in Shpiragri; but there are 'bad-land' patches in the *flysch* due to severe weathering.

Though intimately connected with the frontage of Albanian Epirus, Mallakastra is nevertheless essentially lowland, with patches of *maquis*, and many olive plantations replacing the natural vegetation, which is scanty on the sands and marls, but sometimes very dense on the limestone. Its former prosperity is attested by the city sites of Apollonia (Pojan) and Byllis (Ballsh); but there has been subsidence and deposition of silt, its streams are out of control, and there is much malaria. Main settlements are Ballsh, Cakran, Fratar, and Graçan. The swampy shores of Valona bay, west of the Vjosë, are the southern end of the coastal lowland; and Valona itself, an old economic and administrative centre, and a naval port and garrison under Italian rule, nestles below a last northward spur of M. i Çikës, overlooking the salt-pans and dunes of Knetë i Nartës.

B. GEOLOGY

INTRODUCTION

ALBANIA forms part of the Dinaric mountain system, the principal morphological unit of the western Balkan peninsula. Its political boundaries are unrelated to major geological structures or trend-lines, and the folded mountain chains from which most of the land is built up pass without interruption into Yugoslavia on the north and east, into Greece in the south.

Despite the primitive nature of the country, the geology of Albania is known in fair detail, as a result of investigation carried out by geologists of many nationalities. Pioneer research by Ami Boué (1840), the distinguished natural historian of Vienna, who was accompanied in one of his tours of exploration by the Frenchman



46. *Limestone peaks of M. Jezerce*



47. *Limestone outlier over serpentine: Munellë range looking NE. across village of Mushtë*



48. *Karst limestone in Gollobordë district, SE. of Zerqan. In background Çermenikë flysch uplands*



49. *Limestone anticline exposed under denuded flysch. Summit of Golik*

Viquesnel (1842-4), laid the foundations of our knowledge. Thereafter little was accomplished until the intensive studies of north Albania made by the Hungarian, Baron F. Nopsca, principally between 1905 and 1913. A commission financed by the Italian Government, including dal Piaz and de Toni, made much progress in the study of the coastal zone of middle Albania in 1913, while during the 1914-1918 War Austrian, German, Italian, and French geologists were present in different parts of the country, the work of the Frenchman Bourcart on south-east Albania and of the Austrian Nowack on the Mallakastër and middle Albania being especially noteworthy. Research under the Albanian Government began in 1922, with Nowack in charge, and resulted in the publication in 1928 of a detailed geological map of the country (1:200,000), accompanied by a mimeographed report and full bibliography. More recently (1937) the oil geology has been dealt with by Maddalena and Zuber. Reference to these works is made in the Bibliography. There is no comprehensive account of the geology in English.

STRUCTURAL GEOLOGY

Geologically Albania is a young country, for although the strata which build it up range in almost uninterrupted sequence from Upper Palaeozoic deposits to rock-formations of Recent age, it was not until the great tectonic disturbances and mountain-building movements of the Tertiary era that the land began to rise from the sea bed. By Upper Tertiary times the main configuration of the country was developed, but the process of land-emergence continued with waning vigour throughout the Quaternary period, and, as rather frequent earthquakes indicate, crustal adjustments are still proceeding locally at the present day.

The tectonics of the country are most complicated. The west and the south-west form a highly folded autochthonous region, the rocks of which were originally deposited in the belt of territory to which they now belong; but in the north and east extensive mountain massifs are foreign to their present situation, which they have occupied consequent on vast movements of overthrusting. As a result of the orogenic movements the land may be conveniently divided into the following seven tectonic or structural units, of which zones 1-3 are 'autochthonous', zones 5-7 are foreign or 'exotic', while zone 4 occupies an intermediate position.

1. *The Adriatic-Ionian Zone.* This zone, forming the coastal region of south Albania from the Dhrino westwards to the gulf of Valona (Gji i

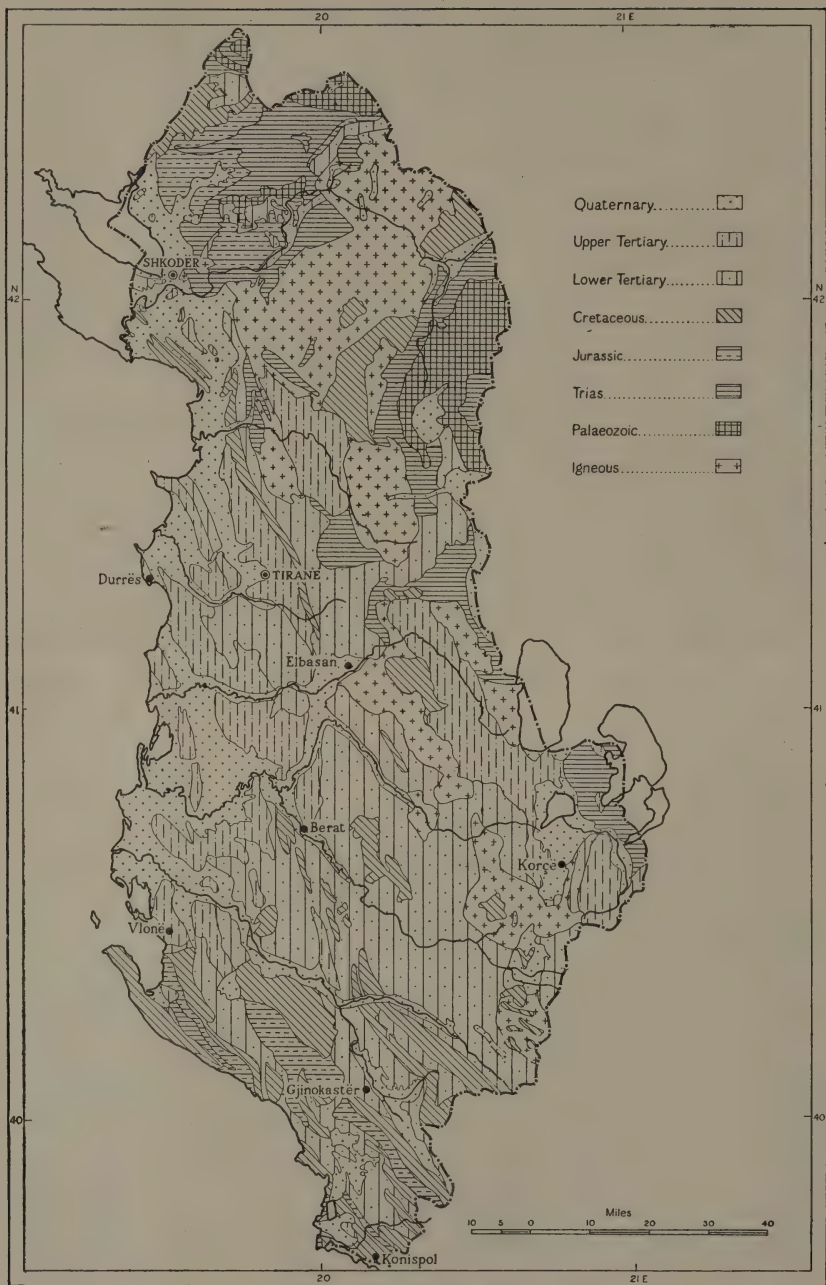


FIG. 8. *Geology*

Vlonës), is made up of two large block-faulted anticlines of south-east to north-west trend, the Akrokeraunian mountains on the west and the Griba-Kurvelesh-Mal i gjerë mountains on the east, with a complex synclinal region between. The strata range, probably without a gap, from the Upper Trias to the Lower Tertiary. Limestones are very widely developed, especially in the mountain ranges.

2. *The Lower Albania-Epirotic Zone.* Stretching south-eastwards from the Adriatic coast of middle Albania to the Epirus district of Greece, this is a zone of anticlines and synclines, notable for the relative simplicity of its folding, though various minor overthrusts and transverse folds are present. The strata range throughout the whole of the Tertiary and are dominantly argillaceous, with a minor development of Upper Cretaceous-Lower Eocene limestones. The *flysch* (Lower Tertiary) series of shales, sandy shales, and marls is many thousand feet thick, and of widespread distribution.

3. *The Dalmatian-Montenegrin Coastal Chain.* The mountain chain which forms the Dalmatian-Montenegrin seaboard is prolonged down the north Albanian coast as far as Lesh, forming the anticlines of the Mal i Rrëncit and Mal i Kakarriqit; it then sweeps inland through the isoclinal Krujë ridge to near Elbasan. This unit includes only the Upper Cretaceous-Lower Eocene nummulite limestone and Middle Eocene-Oligocene *flysch*.

4. *The Cukali Zone.* This structural zone embraces principally the Cukali district of north Albania, formed of a system of complicated anticlines of deep-water Mesozoic sediments—limestones and shales with much hornstone and chert—which has been thrust over the foreland from the north-north-west. To the south and south-south-east the zone extends in less certain form from Lesh to the river Shkumbi near Elbasan, thence along the Shënapremte pass and the river Devoll, and over the Ostrovicë heights to the head-waters of the Osum. In this southern belt, where the structure is somewhat obscure because of the plasticity of the strata, the rocks are principally massive, flaggy, or brecciated limestones, with plastic sandy shales, all of Eocene-Oligocene age.

5. *The North Albanian Tableland.* The high tableland of the North Albanian Alps, which forms part of an important tectonic unit more fully developed in Croatia, Dalmatia, and Montenegro, has been thrust over the Cukali zone from the north. Imbricate structure is of widespread distribution. The strata involved include Upper Carboniferous limestones; Permian sandstones, conglomerates, and shales; Triassic, Jurassic, and Cretaceous limestones and hornstones; and Lower Tertiary *flysch*.

6. *The Serpentine Zone.* Most of the high mountain ranges of central Albania belong to this complex, which enters the country on the north-east between the rivers Valbonë and Drin i bardhë, has an expanded development south of the united Drin, forms the backbone of the whole of middle Albania with a broad interrupted outcrop between Elbasan and

Lake Ochrida, and passes over into Macedonia to the south of Korçë. The zone has been thrust in from the east and overlies Nos. 2 to 5 along a prominent north-north-west to south-south-east thrust-plane. The tectonics are complex, with much rift-faulting, overthrusting, and imbrication. The rocks present are dominantly serpentinized basic and ultrabasic intrusions, but Triassic, Cretaceous, and Tertiary sediments are locally widely developed, the latter especially so in the Korçë depression. A marked trough-like region of disturbance, extending from near Scutari along part of the Mat and upper Shkumbî to the Korçë region, divides the zone into easterly and westerly segments.

7. *The Drin-Korab Zone.* The serpentine zone is divided from the formations to the east by a great fracture, passing down the valleys of the White and Black Drins to Lake Ochrida, and thence along the western boundary fault of the Mal i thatë on the border of the Korçë depression. Along this zone of faulting the serpentine belt has sunk between 3,000 and 6,000 feet. To the east lies an extensive block of regionally metamorphosed strata, only the western margin of which enters the Albanian frontier to form the Korab chain of mountains. The strata involved are principally Permo-Carboniferous phyllites, quartzites, sheared eruptive rocks, sandstones, and conglomerates; Permian gypsum; and Triassic clays, sands, conglomerates, limestones, and marbles.

From the above synopsis of the structural geology it will be seen that the ground-plan of Albania is dominated by the north-west to south-east or north-north-west to south-south-east Dinaric trend, parallel to which lie the folded chains of the foreland, the frontal thrust-plane of the serpentine zone, the sub-frontal depression of the Mat-Shkumbî trough, and the fracture occupied by the Black Drin. Dislocations of north-east to south-west orientation, in part of later age, are, however, met with in the valley of the White Drin, in the trough of the middle Shkumbî by Elbasan, and in minor transverse faults of the Adriatic-Ionian zone to the south. Finally, the most recent belt of tectonic disturbance, which dates in large part from the Quaternary, is to be found in the rift extending from Lake Ochrida, through the Korçë trough to the Kolonjë basin, the boundary faults of which are of north-south trend.

STRATIGRAPHY

The following notes on the stratigraphy are intended to supplement the generalized geological map (in the pocket at the end of the book).

Igneous Rocks

Igneous rocks, widely altered to serpentine, form that great part of the north-central and eastern Albanian mountains previously referred to as

the 'Serpentine Zone'. Diabases and spilitic basalts are widespread in the Mirditë and Dukagjin sub-prefectures, where they are locally associated with smaller masses of diorite and porphyry; except along steep slopes and precipices, these rocks are invariably much decomposed, the level ground being covered by a stony desert-like surface completely pervious to water. Small intrusions of gabbro are found in the Orosh district of Mirditë, but of far more extensive distribution throughout the whole zone are the large masses of ultrabasic character, notably peridotite, harzburgite, and dunite, all more or less transformed to serpentine. Indeed, Albania contains one of the largest complexes of serpentine rocks in Europe. The soils to which the serpentines give rise are rather sparse, of a rusty-red colour, and somewhat pervious, the territory being rather dry and supporting only a poor vegetation, mainly fir and box-tree.

The igneous rocks are not all of the same age, some diabases, spilites, and porphyries being Triassic and Jurassic, while other types, including the main serpentine complex, belong to the Lower Tertiary. The chromite and copper deposits of Albania are associated with these intrusions.

Sedimentary Rocks

Palaeozoic. Palaeozoic strata are confined to the north and north-east of the country, the oldest rocks discovered being of Permo-Carboniferous age. In the 'North Albanian Tableland', north of the Drin, these are shales and interbedded greywackes, quartzites and quartz-conglomerates, locally with limestones containing productids; east of the Drin, however, in the foreland of the Šar planina of Yugoslavia, the shales are metamorphosed to phyllites, and various compressed eruptive rocks are present. Red schistose sandstones and quartz-conglomerates of (?) Permian age, with shales and limestones, are developed along the lower Black Drin. Most of these strata yield a good surface-soil, though occasionally somewhat swampy in the lower ground. In the mountain peaks of the Korab a deposit of Permian gypsum, possibly 3,000 feet thick, is conspicuous by its snow-white colour, and by the sparsity or absence of vegetation.

Trias. Rocks of the Triassic system are of wide distribution, but vary greatly in lithology throughout the country. In the Korab mountains a succession of red and green slates, eruptive rocks, platy limestones, quartzites, and conglomerates, all of Lower to Middle Trias age, have been subjected to compression and foliation. They are succeeded by fine-grained white marble. Between the large intrusive masses of the serpentine belt, as far south as the Shkumbî, Lower to Middle Trias hornstones, red schistose jaspers, shales, and grits are present, with many intrusions of basic eruptive rocks. In north, east, and northern middle Albania crumpled shales, marls, platy limestones with chert or hornstone, and sandy or calcareous conglomerates are developed, the shales giving rise to frequent landslips. In the south the Upper Trias forms a narrow zone of bitumen-

impregnated dolomites in the Lum i Dukatit–Llogora pass district, south of Valona; but contemporary light-coloured massive limestones are much more widely developed in northern and middle Albania. In the high mountain country of the north, especially in Krasniqi along the upper Valbonë valley, these Upper Trias limestones are of great importance as source-rocks of the water-supplies of the Alpine pastures.

Jurassic. Jurassic rocks are found principally in the coastal region of south Albania, in Cukali district to the west of Scutari, and in the North Albanian Tableland. The lithological development is different in each of these tectonic units. In the south, dolomitized limestones of Lower–Middle Lias age, found along the west of the Mal i gjerë range, are succeeded by more widespread siliceous marls, shales, and hornstones of the Upper Lias and Dogger, the soils of which are often sterile and the bare hill-slopes torn by rain gullies. A thickness of over 3,300 feet of flaggy marls, hornstones, and compact bituminous limestones follows, developed in the Lungara–Mal i Çikës range, the Griba–Kurvelesh–Mal i gjerë mountains, the Mal i Lunxhëriës range, and in the hills around Konispol. In Cukali region, between the Drin and Kir rivers, Middle Jurassic hornstones are predominant, interbedded with flaggy and nodular limestones and with thick masses (upwards of 330 ft.) of chert in the upper horizons. In the North Albanian Alps the development is principally calcareous, bituminous flaggy limestones and shales of the Lower–Middle Lias being succeeded by a great thickness of massive light-coloured limestones in the Kastrat and Shkrel regions.

Cretaceous. The Cretaceous formations succeed the Jurassic without unconformity, and have approximately the same distribution as the latter. Conglomerates, sandstones, marls, and limestones of the Lower division attain a large development in the north-east of the country. Hydrozoan reef-limestones, mainly Middle Cretaceous, are widespread throughout the North Albanian Tableland, especially in the west, and are succeeded by grey *Rudistes* limestones, flaggy to massive, with seams of flint nodules. In the Voskopojë district near Korçë, Cenomanian–Turonian brecciated limestones (660 ft.) yield a fine ornamental stone; while in the M. i. Polisit mountains and elsewhere red limestone conglomerates and marls, up to 2,300 feet thick, play an important part in water storage, a prominent belt of springs marking the base of the formation. By far the most widespread of all Albanian limestone strata are, however, the massive-bedded Upper Cretaceous–Lower Eocene nummulite-bearing rocks, bright grey in colour and with beds of flint and hornstone, which give rise to most of the mountain ranges of the south and south-west of the country, especially near the coast. Watercourses cut through these hills in gorges and crevasses, but although the bare rugged limestone surfaces may be sculptured into fantastic forms by the solvent action of rain-water, true karst development, with underground drainage, is confined to parts of Mal i Tomorrit, Glumakë, and the Kurvelesh plateau. In many regions the strata have

been thrust or folded over the Lower Tertiary (*flysch*) clays and marls, and the limestone-*flysch* boundary then gives rise to one of the most important spring horizons of south Albania.

Lower Tertiary (The 'Flysch' Formation). There is no unconformity between the Cretaceous and the Lower Eocene, and all the formations of the Tertiary system are present in Albania, without gaps in the sequence. Most of the cultivated ground overlies the Tertiary rocks. In the Lower Tertiary the so-called *flysch* strata have an outcrop approximately equal to that of all the other sedimentary formations put together, occupying enormous areas in the middle and south of the country, and a smaller, though appreciable, extent in the north, principally around Cukali massif. Typically these rocks are thin-bedded shales, alternating with sandy shales and marly sandstones. The formation is impermeable to rain-water, and it is thus characterized by a seasonal aridity and common lack of springs. The strata are readily eroded by the heavy autumnal and winter rains, especially where deforestation has taken place, and a characteristic 'bad-land' type of topography results, of barren surface and with numerous narrow, irregular, V-shaped gullies separated by acute narrow-crested ridges. Remarkable surface changes may take place in this territory even during one heavy rainstorm, while landslides are of frequent occurrence.

Locally there are belts of rocks differing somewhat from the typical lithology. Coarse marly conglomerates occur to the south-east of Leskovik, and in the Grammos range along the Albanian-Greek border the dominant strata are sandstones derived from the denudation of serpentine. Thin beds of nummulitic and sandy limestone are developed to the west of the Kolonjë region and elsewhere, while well-stratified marly limestones and massive granular limestones, of Middle Eocene age, forming the Krastë hills near Elbasan and parts of the Çermenikë uplands, are of local importance in water-supply. Coarse sandy or conglomerate horizons of the Oligocene give rise to the *maquis*-covered country in the Valona hinterland, the Mallakastër, and the hills near Elbasan, Tirana, and Scutari. To the east of Korçë a series of marls and sandstones contains low-grade coal-seams.

Upper Tertiary. Upper Tertiary strata are most widely developed in the western part of the Albanian coastal belt and along the Devoll headwaters east of Korçë. It is from these rocks that the production of lignite and petroleum is derived (*see p. 250*), although oil is also indicated in older formations. The lithological types vary according to locality and to stratigraphical horizon; sandy algal limestones, sandy conglomerates, argillaceous sandstones, marls, loams, and clays predominating. In the Ballsh region south-west of Elbasan there is an extensive tract of gypsum-karst country (Lower Miocene), producing a plateau with numerous basin-shaped collapse-structures, often occupied by lakes. The principal lignite deposits are found to the south and east of Tirana. The youngest (Upper Pliocene) deposits, sands, marls, and clays, have a large development along

the lower Vjosë river and in the uplands of middle Albania near the coast, where they give rise to a fertile, loamy soil.

Quaternary formations are restricted principally to the coastal plains and the lowlands, but include also detrital and morainic deposits, formed under Ice Age conditions, in the eastern and northern highlands. In general the Albanian mountains were glaciated, especially on their eastern sides, wherever the altitude exceeded 6,500 feet, and glaciers carrying morainic debris descended to as low as 1,000 feet in some mountain valleys. A mantle of rock detritus of Pleistocene age clothes the lower slopes of many of the limestone chains, and is often cemented to a compact limestone breccia, with frequent caves and with important springs along the base of the major outcrops. The Kolonjë basin has a Pleistocene floor of loamy serpentine-limestone rubble, and a similar formation occurs along the foot of the Korab range, by Peshkopi. Gravel terraces are found along many river valleys up to a height of 230 feet or more above the present valley beds, which are themselves filled, in or near to the mountain country, by gravel accumulations which are submerged during flood. In lowland Albania fluvial deposits of Pleistocene and Recent age cover the broad plains near the coast, and consist of sandy clays, loams, and fine sands, the silt deposits around the lakes forming swamps during the rainy season but drying hard in summer. Much of the coast of lower Albania, from Valona northwards, is fringed by a belt of sand-dunes from 500 to 650 feet wide.



50. Limestone anticline of Shëndëlli: typical contrast between limestone and flysch formations



51. Flysch country in Çermenikë highlands NW. of Librazdh. View SE. from near Zdräjshtë down Zall i Shëmillet



52. *Upper (marly) flysch, stratified and denuded, near Q. e Murisit, on Berat-Këlcyrë road*



53. *Middle flysch sandstone: typical weathering forms (dome-like): eastern Mallakastër*

CHAPTER III

THE COAST

THE Albanian coast consists of three very different parts:

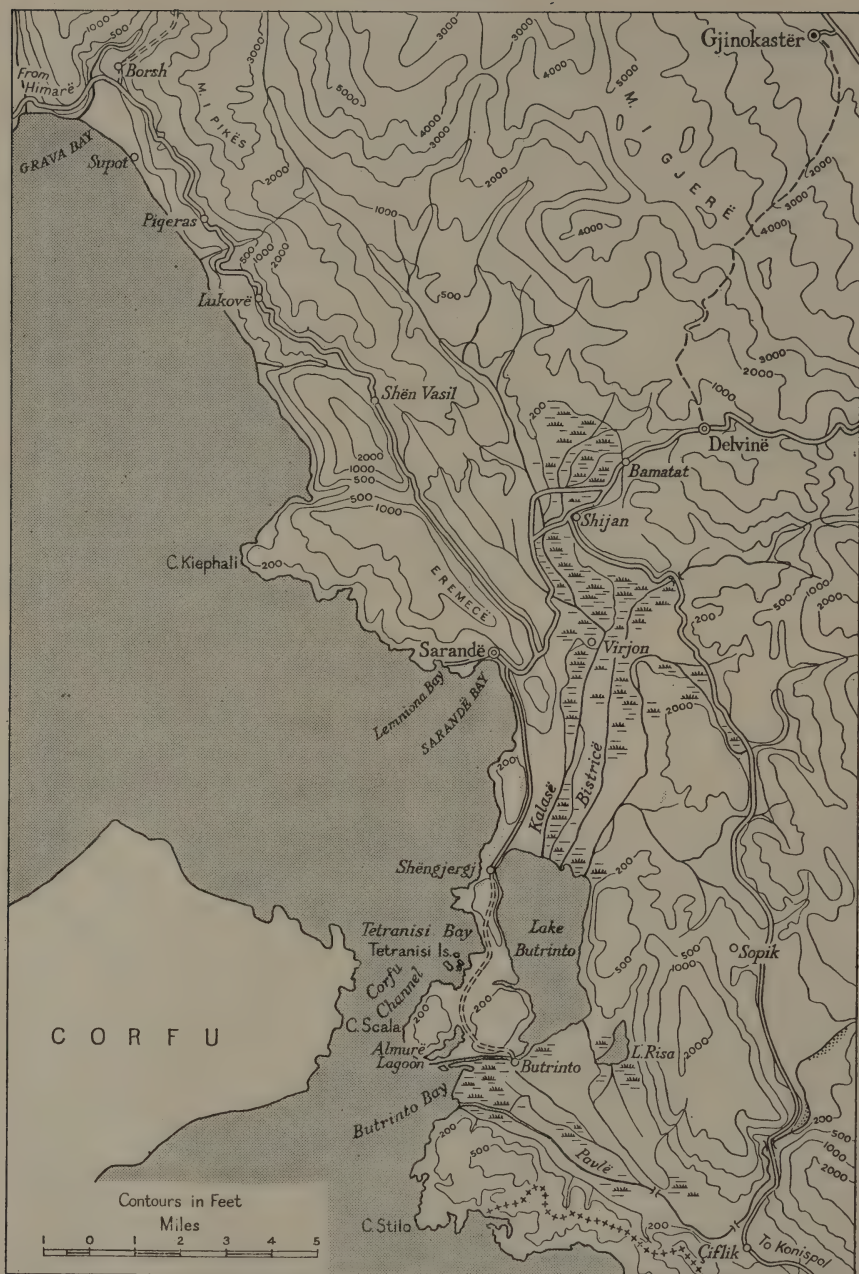
- (1) The lowland coast of the Corfu channel from the Greek frontier to Sarandë (Santi Quaranta; *fascist* Porto Edda).
- (2) The steep seaward frontage of the 'Albanian Riviera' from Sarandë to Cape Linguetta (*Alb.* Kep i Gjuhëzës).
- (3) The lowland from Cape Linguetta and Valona bay to Menders point north-west of the Boyana (Buenë) river.

1. *The Coast of the Corfu Channel* (Fig. 9)

The Greek frontier reaches the coast range south-east of Konispol, but follows its crest north-eastwards to Cape Stilo, reserving the coastward slope to Greece, because it is an old dependency of Corfu. Cape Stilo is low and salient, but the north-west spur of the coast range rises to nearly 900 feet $2\frac{1}{2}$ miles inland, and overlooks the lower Pavlë valley. Where this spur overlooks the coast north of Cape Stilo it is high, with deep water inshore, for 2 miles along the south side of Butrinto bay. This bay, sheltered northward by Cape Scala, is the best anchorage abreast of the island of Corfu, but the water shoals suddenly from 12 fathoms: there is anchorage in mud (17 fathoms) at the south end of the bay about 2 cables outside the 5-fathom line.

Descriptions of the Butrinto river and bay differ, because the silting is progressive. Butrinto bay was once continuous with Butrinto lake, but the muddy Pavlë river has carried forward its delta across the bay with a swampy beach nearly to the northern point, and displaced the original Butrinto river outlet. Within the bay there is only 6 feet of water, and there are extensive fish-traps within the lake, and also at the exit from it. The northern half of the bay is thus enclosed and forms the Almurë salt-lagoon, draining into the river at its mouth, where it is 20 yards wide and can only be crossed by boats. There is a mud-bank off the Butrinto river and for some distance off shore all round the bay. On both banks there is thick scrub with low trees.

Butrinto lake lies north-east of Butrinto bay, with 12 feet all over, and drains into the bay from its south-west corner. It is 4 miles long from north to south and $1\frac{3}{4}$ miles wide. It is separated from the sea



• FIG. 9. Sarandë and Butrinto

by low land, over 500 feet high in places and $2\frac{1}{2}$ miles wide at its southern end, but only 600 yards wide farther north. The north shore is rendered marshy by the silt of the Kalasë and Pavlë rivers. On the north bank of the Butrinto river, where it leaves the lake, is a large fort on a rocky peak. The ancient site on the peninsula between river and lake has been excavated. South-east of the lake, in the lower Katito marshland, is the small freshwater lake Risa (Liqen i Rezës). Northwards from the lake the wooded plain of the Kalasë is bounded seaward by the coast range as far as Sarandë, and eastward it rises gradually for 10 miles to Gjorgucat (3,500 ft.) on the watershed between the Bistricë and the Sarandaporos. From the point near Virjon where the Kalasë and Bistricë nearly meet, 5 miles north of the lake, there are two or more channels through the marsh. The hills around this plain are of limestone and wooded.

There is much game in this district: snipe, woodcock, and other wild fowl round Butrinto; deer and wild boar towards Cape Stilo.

Opposite Cape Scala, in the narrowest part of the Corfu channel, there is anchorage in 9-10 fathoms, with irregular bottom but shelter from east or south winds. The coast range is rocky and increases in height northwards. Tetranisi bay, which takes its name from the four islets at its southern end, is $1\frac{1}{2}$ miles north-east of Cape Scala. In the bay are three small beaches, fairly steep to, backed by wooded country and with a track to Sarandë. The coast range becomes bolder, and $1\frac{1}{2}$ miles north of Tetranisi bay, on a hill, is the monastery of St. George (*Alb.* Shëngjergj), overlooking Butrinto lake to the south-east, and Sarandë bay to the north-west. There is a small and exposed inlet and beach 400 yards north of the monastery.

2. *The Albanian Riviera* (Fig. 10)

Sarandë port and bay are described in greater detail in Chapter XII. Since classical times Sarandë has been a port of call on the voyage between Greece and Italy, and, since 1939, it has been of increasing value as a landing-place for men and for munitions of war. The town lies along the narrow coastal fringe of a range known, at its southern end, as Eremecë. The small bay is the north-easterly corner of the larger bay between Shëngjergj to the south and Cape Kiephali to the north-west, and Sarandë is 8 miles north-north-east of Cape Scala. South of the town the coastal range is steep and rugged, and the main communication, to east and north, crosses a col over this range, whilst a coast road leads south to Shëngjergj.

North-west of Sarandë bay the coast is bare, rocky, and steep-to

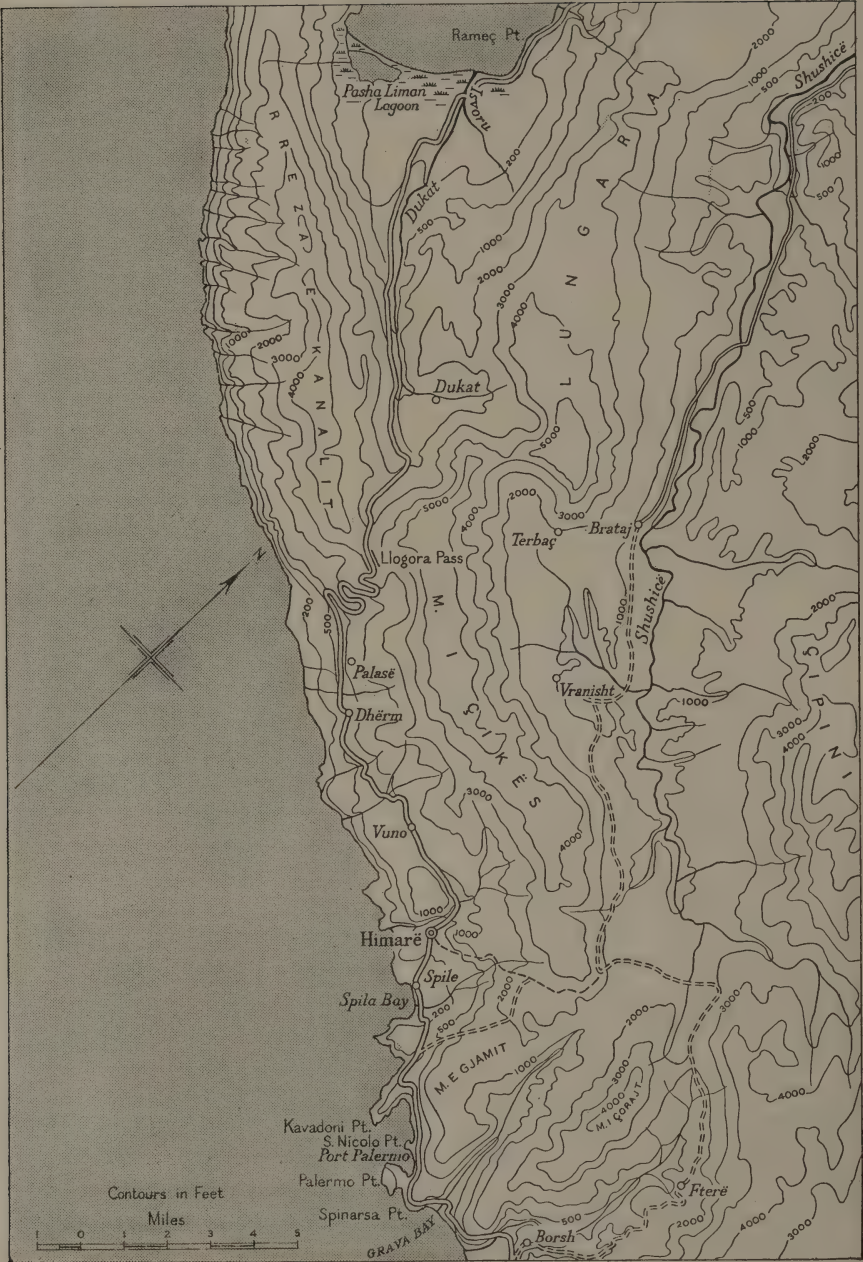


FIG. 10. The Albanian Riviera



54. *Flysch 'bad lands': M. i Dajtit*



55. *Tertiary marls: typical hill country between Tirana and Durazzo*



56. *Tertiary hill country, with oak forests and small lakes. View ESE.
from Gradishtë hill near Belsh*



57. *Marshy alluvial plain, as dried out in summer, near mouth of the Vijosë*

with ravines and coves for 5 miles to C. Kiephali ('head' 463 ft.), a round headland, covered with stunted trees and bushes, with a high peak inland (1,900 ft.). The high road keeps to the landward slope of the coast range, from Sarandë to Lukovë (10 miles).

North of C. Kiephali the coast turns north-west and then west, forming the open Grava bay, and reaching Palermo point after $10\frac{1}{4}$ miles. The sea inshore is deep, the shore sandy, with small enclosed beaches, and the land rises steeply to Mt. Lavan (over 3,000 ft.); which is only $1\frac{1}{2}$ miles from the coast. But $4\frac{1}{2}$ miles north of C. Kiephali the Gorgontas shoal ($1\frac{1}{4}$ fathoms) is about half a mile off shore.

The high road from Sarandë to Valona descends to the shore at Lukovë, 5 miles north of C. Kiephali, and remains in the low ground as far as the ascent to Himarë (14 miles). Inland, the Kalasë valley runs nearly parallel to the coast, about 3 miles inland, but just north of Piqeras village the coast range of Lavan and Galisht begins to increase in height to peaks east of Borsh, where it trends north to become the south-westward spur of Mal i gjerë and Griba which overlook the Dhrino valley between Gjinokastër and Tepelenë. At the head of the Dhrino tributary Lum i Kardhiqit is a pass, carrying a foot-path, from the Lum i Kalasës. Another pass farther west descends into the headwaters of the Kalasë and communicates also with Fterë in the deep valley north of Borsh.

At Borsh this valley interrupts the coast range, and between it and Prroni i Kudhësit—the next valley westward—M. i Çorajt (nearly 4,150 ft.) slopes $2\frac{1}{2}$ miles down to the coast; the silt and shingle of the two streams form a series of beaches 3 miles long, interrupted when the torrents are in flood, and opening on to Grava bay, below the convent of S. Demetrius (*Alb.* Shën Dhimitri) and the ruins of Fort Borsi (Borsh; 820 ft.). Grava bay is sheltered to west by Spinarsa point (306 ft.) and Palermo point (338 ft.), the extremity of Majë e Gjamit, a long southward spur (999 ft.) of Mal i Çikës, the rugged range which separates Valona bay and the Himarë country from the swampy valley of the Lum i Shushicës. Another spur, ending in C. Kavadoni (299 ft.), encloses Palermo bay on the west.

Port Palermo (*class.* Thronium) is the only anchorage between Sarandë (17 m.) and Valona bay (35 m.). It is 6 miles south-east from Himarë village, opens south-west, and is divided by a small point San Nicolo (*Alb.* Shënkoll), on which is Ali Pasha's fort with a lighthouse and small jetty. North of this, Armarida bay has anchorage in

15-35 fathoms sheltered from all but south and south-west winds. To south-east, Panormo and Sinikol bays are less deep inshore ($4\frac{1}{2}$ -7 fathoms); shelter is good, but the bottom is rocky and slopes off shore, so that anchors drag. There is beach on both bays. Port Palermo only serves the local traffic of the Himarë district and the upper Shushicë valley inland of M. i Çorajt and the coast range: coasting vessels call at Spila bay, 3 miles north-west of Palermo.

Northward 10-12 miles from Port Palermo is the rugged district generally known as Himarë (*Gk.* Cheimarra, 'ravines') from the strong position of its principal settlement (pop. 1,500). The people of this district are Orthodox and mainly Greek-speaking. Inland the long ridge of Mal i Çikës rises abruptly to its peaks, Majë e Çikës (6,644 ft.) 3 miles inland and Majë e Qorrës (6,622 ft.), and is dissected by several gorges, but there is richly cultivated land along the coast, and beach backed by houses in Spila bay and between this bay and Port Palermo. But there is no shelter. Here Julius Caesar landed his forces from Brundisium (Brindisi) in 48 B.C. to attack Pompey at Dyrrhachium. To the north-west this district is bounded by a distinct coast-range, Rreza e Kanalit with peaks of 4,000 feet or more, between which and Mal i Çikës the coast road follows the Llogora pass to Dukat and Valona. There are numerous small beaches with good cover, but the high road is now on an abrupt shelf a mile or more inland.

Nearly 11 miles north-west of Port Palermo a wide watercourse with white shingle (*It.* Strade Bianche, *Alb.* Rrug'e bardhë) is conspicuous, west of Drymades (*Alb.* Dhërm) and Paliassa (*Alb.* Palasë), the western villages of Himarë. Here is open beach for over 300 yards, interrupted by several streams and backed by cliffs and rough ground. The road is a mile or more inland.

All this coast trends slightly more to north-west, and there is no shelter except Orso Cove, 9 miles south-east of C. Linguetta, exposed to west and north-west winds, with a steep track over the mountains to Dukat. The current sets almost constantly to north-west as far as C. Linguetta, then swerves north-east into Valona bay south of Saseno island.

The Rreza e Kanalit range is continued into the promontory, but sinks to about 2,000 feet 2 miles south of C. Linguetta, and the old Turkish word Karaburun is often still applied to this feature. The highest point is San Vasilio (M. i Koret; 2,700 ft.), 5 miles from the cape.

Valona (*Alb.* Vlonë; *Tosk* Vlorë) (Fig. 11) is the principal port of southern Albania, and the Italian naval station east of the Adriatic (*see* p. 278). Valona bay is a deep gulf opening north-west, 9 miles from north to south, 5 miles from east to west, and with depths of 20–28 fathoms. It lies between the promontory of C. Linguetta on the west, which is steep-to (lat. $40^{\circ} 25' N.$; long. $19^{\circ} 18' E.$), and the northward spurs of M. i Çikës on the east, which are not so steep. The latter sinks gently north into the low fertile hills, sand-dunes, and alluvial ground which forms the north side of the gulf and encloses a large salt-marsh and lagoon—Knetë e Nartës—draining seaward west of C. Treporti, 6 miles north-east of C. Linguetta with shoal water for about a mile off shore. The south end of the gulf is filled by the alluvial silt and shingle of the Lum i Dukatit. There are sand-dunes to the south and beaches on the east shore south-west of Valona town and Kaninë village. These beaches stretch south to Batteria point (lighthouse), continuing intermittently to Ramec point, and thence continuously again for 2 miles beyond the Izvor (Lum i Dukatit) river. Behind this beach is the Pasha Liman lagoon and marsh, with woodland and swamp behind.

Valona bay will accommodate at anchor 20–25 ships of 5,000 to 15,000 tons. Water has to be supplied from springs at Krionero (*Alb.* Uj të ftohtë), east of Valona bay, and is stored in tanks. There is coal storage and electric power station; telegraph cable and W/T.

Communications: (1) Motor-road north by Lushnje for Durazzo, Tirana, and Elbasan; branch from Fier (18 miles) for Berat. (2) Motor-road east to Tepelenë for Gjinokastër and Kakavi (*Gk.* Kakavia), and direct to Berat by Këlcyrë (*Gk.* Klisura; 55 miles). (3) Motor-road south along the bay below Dukat village to the Llogora pass for Himarë, Sarandë, and Delvinë, then by track to Gjorgucat on the motor-road from Gjinokastër to Yannina.

A narrow-gauge railway leads east to the asphalt mine at Selenicë (10 miles).

A telegraph-cable to Otranto leaves the shore $1\frac{1}{2}$ miles west of the town and passes between C. Linguetta and Saseno island.

Normal steamer services from Trieste and Brindisi to east Mediterranean ports, and many small Greek coasters, use the bay.

Saseno Island (lat. $40^{\circ} 25' N.$, long. $19^{\circ} 18' E.$) lies in the entrance to the gulf, 3 miles north of C. Linguetta and $4\frac{1}{2}$ miles west of the mainland. It is 3 miles from north to south and 1 mile across, and consists of two conical hills of limestone, rising to over 1,000



58. *Port Palermo and Armarida Bay. View SE.*



59. *Spila Bay, looking SE. from in front of Spila village*



60. Coast NW. of Himarë, looking SE. from Llogora pass



61. Llogora pass: looking NE. near southern end of pass

feet, with a deep saddle between. Deep clefts and caves open on the western slopes, and a belt of wind-swept trees lines the cliff-tops. There is temporary anchorage on the north-east side where a small valley descends into S. Nicolo bay with 13–26 feet of water sheltered from south and west, and supplemented now by a break-water and small mole and quays, with light railway and ropeway. The lighthouse, on the north-west side, stands 651 feet above the sea.

3. *The Low Coast from C. Treporti (Trelima; lat. 40° 29' N., long. 19° 25' E.) to Menders Point (41° 57' N., 19° 09' E.)*

The coastal plains, which extend some miles inland, are far from flat throughout, and their topography is determined by the long ridges of sandstone and marl which traverse them. Inland of the lagoons and coast swamps is much firm alluvial clay, often flooded in winter, and moist enough to support perennial pasture; but much land, recently drained, is under cultivation. Farther inland, at heights of over 60 feet, the rivers have cut their courses deeply into this alluvium and improved the natural drainage. Above the alluvial level the surface is usually soft clay or marl, with patches of sand, rubble, and hill-wash. But there has been no soil survey even of the cultivable districts.

From Valona bay northward to the Boyana river (80 miles) the mountains of Albania recede from the coast, which is mainly composed of silt, shingle, and sandhills, interrupted by ranges of low hills, trending north-west and passing seawards into capes which separate open bays. The steady northward current and strong south-westerly winds accumulate beaches on the south-west side of these promontories. There is little shelter for vessels, no anchorage except at Durazzo, and the 5-fathom line is as much as 2 miles from the coast. The water inshore being shallow, the soft bottom is disturbed by heavy rain and river flood, whereas from Ulcinj (Dulcigno) northwards the coast is once more steep-to and indented, and the water deep and clear.

The wide lower valleys of those nine important rivers Vjosë, Seman, Shkumbî, Darçi, Erzen, Ishm, Mat, Drin, and Boyana are marshy and malarious; but farther inland their districts, though imperfectly cultivated, produce wine, oil, tobacco, maize, fruits and vegetables, and cheese, the grazing for which competes severely with agriculture.

Cape Treporti, 94 feet high, north of Valona bay, consists of earth

and rocks with low cliff seaward; rocks extend about $\frac{3}{4}$ cable, and the 5-fathom line is from 1 to 2 miles off shore. North of the cape ($1\frac{3}{4}$ miles) is Porto Nuovo, between rocky points 750 yards apart, separated from Knetë e Nartës only by a sand-bar. There are small beaches, here and also south and east of Peschiera point (*Alb.* Gjuha e Dajlanit), but they lead only to Nartë, and are useless for vehicles. The Knetë e Nartës lagoon, to the west of Valona, is 5 miles across between the shore and the motor-road, and 8 miles from north to south. It is surrounded by marsh, and similar marshes line the coast northward nearly as far as C. Laghi (Kep i Lagit) and extend far up the Vijosë, Seman, and Shkumbî valleys. There are beaches (1) south of the Vijosë outlet, backed by sand-dunes and cultivated ground near Grykë, but intersected by an old bed of the Vijosë, and separated from the interior by the modern channel; (2) between Port Seman and the small stream south of it, also isolated by marshes inland; (3) between C. Laghi and a similar stream north of the Shkumbî, with only a devious road from Spilej through marshes to the high road at Kalush (12 miles).

The *Vijosë* river (*class.* Aëropus) rises far to the south-east and receives the Sarandaporos before crossing the Greek frontier, and the Dhrino before issuing from the Southern Highlands at Tepelenë. It then turns west through the more open Mallakastër district, and about 8 miles from the coast receives the parallel Shushicë stream from the Çikë highland south-east of Valona. It is crossed at Tepelenë by the important road from Valona to Korçë and Yannina, and at Fier about 6 miles from its mouth by the highway from Valona to Durazzo and the north. Seaward of this crossing its course is through marshes; and between its mouth and Semana point the coast is alluvial, with the Soly swamp (Kënetat të Solit) averaging 5 miles broad, as far as the low ridge (Mal i Peshtanit; 393–450 ft.) which separates the Vijosë from the Seman. South of the swamp is a belt of woodland, continued in patches south of the Vijosë.

The *Seman* river combines the waters of the Devoll, which drains the basin of Korçë, and the Osum (Lum i Beratit), which leaves the Southern Highland at Berat and joins the Devoll 3 miles below Ura e Hasan Beut ('Hasan Bey's Bridge') on the road from Berat to Lushnje and the north. The combined Seman then meanders south-west through marshes along the foothills of Mallakastra to the point 2 miles north of Fier where the Valona–Durazzo road crosses it, and thence north-west to its present mouth in a long coastwise spit, barring from the sea a considerable lagoon, Knetë e Karavastas.

Seman village, from which it has its name, is now 2 miles south of the river, 4 miles from the coast, and nearly 5 miles from Port Seman, which itself is 10 miles south of the present outlet. A low promontory marks an earlier delta and has a beach on its south-west side. A still older channel diverges on the right bank above Kuç and runs westward, crossed by the Fier-Lushnje high road at Goricë; it traverses a wide gap in the low hills north of Libofshë, and enters the Karavasta marsh and lagoon west of Rrungajë.

All this coast has been thrown forward by silt deposit since classical times, for the Greek port of Apollonia was at Pojan, 5 miles inland, at the foot of the Peshtan ridge. The Knetë e Karavastas extends north nearly to the mouth of the Shkumbî, but is separated eastward by a low range (Gur i Gomarës; 500 ft.) from the Knetë e Tërbufit swamp which in severe floods must drain into the Shkumbî. Upstream the Seman has ferries at Libofshë, Petovë, Brostar, Zhelizhan, and Kuç on the road from Lushnje to Berat.

Port Seman has its name from the Seman river which reaches the sea 9 miles farther north. It lies on the north side of an alluvial promontory 11 miles east-north-east from Fier. The south-west face of this promontory collects in a short beach the alluvium from an older mouth west of Pojan village. Tracks connect Port Seman with Fier, and through Pojan with Levan, 5 miles farther south along the high road.

The *Shkumbî* river rises in the Central Highland south-west of Lake Ochrida, and leaves the highland by a gorge above Elbasan. Thence it skirts the south side of the Krrabë moorland and flows west by Peqin to the sea, north of the Knetë e Tërbufit. About 5 miles east of Peqin the valley becomes choked with silt, and the stream divides into several channels as far as Rrogozhinë, after which, though reunited, it remains very sinuous and marshy to its mouth. Probably the Shkumbî once received the Devoll near Bejlik, where the two streams are only 5 miles apart in open country. The Shkumbî valley determines the course of the ancient *Via Egnatia* from Peqin by Elbasan and Qukës to Lake Ochrida. There is a fine medieval bridge at Elbasan, leading to Berat: the modern motor-road from Valona to the north crosses at Rrogozhinë.

North of the Shkumbî river, about 7 miles from the coast, a low ridge trends north-west, reaching the sea at C. Laghi (Kep i Lagit) which is steep and dissected and has on its west side a beach collected from small torrents. C. Laghi is covered with brushwood and crowned by Kalajë church. Five to ten miles east of this ridge a larger

hilly district, Garunjë, trending north-west, is continued to the coast in C. Pali (Kep i Palit) and forms the peninsula on which lies Durazzo, the port of central Albania, and especially of the capital, Tirana. The lowland between these two lines of hills opens on to Durazzo bay: it is drained by the Darçi and Leshniqe streams, and gives to Kavajë its prosperity. For about 3 miles north of the Leshniqe the coast is marshy; there is a long open beach (7 miles) to Durazzo. The motor-road from Valona to Durazzo follows this level coast after crossing the Shkumbî at Rrogozhinë and passing through Kavajë. About 5 miles from Durazzo the speed-road (autostrada) to Tirana by Ndroq turns inland into the Erzen valley; the old northern road by Vorrë diverges outside Durazzo town, and crosses the Erzen at Shijak.

Durazzo bay (*Alb.* Gji i Durrësit), between C. Laghi and C. Durazzo, is 12 miles from north to south and 4 miles deep, but it is shallow with dangerous shoals and rocky patches from C. Laghi to the Selada banks 4 miles north. The Durazzo bank ($1\frac{1}{2}$ fathoms) and Talbot shoal (2 fathoms) lie $1\frac{1}{2}$ miles south of C. Durazzo. A conspicuous landmark east of the bay is a white cliff (*Sasso Bianco*). On either side of this cliff are the best landing-places. East of the shoals is the anchorage outside the modern port, in $3\frac{1}{2}$ fathoms about 1,200 yards south-east and in $4\frac{1}{2}$ fathoms about $1\frac{1}{2}$ miles to south-east. Durazzo bay has long open beaches along which stand bungalows and bathing-huts, with sand-dunes and patches of cultivation behind.

Durazzo (*class.* Dyrrhachium, Epidamnus; *Alb.* Durrës), lat. $41^{\circ} 19' N.$, long. $19^{\circ} 27' E.$, pop. 5,000 (1927), is the chief commercial port of Albania and the entry to the capital Tirana. For a description of the town and its history see p. 265.

Durazzo point is the southern end of a narrow plateau, 3 to 4 miles wide, which lies parallel with the coast as far as C. Pali and is about 8 miles long. C. Durazzo is bluff, conical, and bare; behind it the plateau, much dissected by torrents, rises to Mal i Durrësit (605 ft.), with steep face overlooking Durazzo town southward and also east above the Knetë e Durrësit marsh. The plateau lies lower northward (300–400 ft.), with marly cliffs dissected by ravines, till it sinks to a shingle bank about 2 miles from C. Pali, with a few isolated hillocks behind a long beach piled high with seaweed. There is an artificial sluice between the sea and the lagoon, several recent huts and sheds, and a pier of 250 feet. C. Pali itself is hilly (123 ft.) and wooded, with shallow rocky ground three-quarters of a mile to north-west; and the whole promontory is bordered by a rocky bank some distance off

shore, as far south as the Durazzo bank and Talbot shoal which have already been described. There is, however, anchorage for small vessels in 3 fathoms north-east of C. Pali, with shelter from south-west winds.

East of the Mal i Durrësit plateau the Knetë e Durrësit lagoon is 2 miles wide, with marshy ground northward to the lower course of the Erzen river. It drains south into Durazzo bay east of the town, and the channel is bridged by the motor-road. In classical times the marsh was open water, the *Porta Romana* of Dyrrhachium, of which remains are visible. It is now silted, deserted, and very malarious; it breeds flies in summer and attracts duck and snipe in winter. The mosquitoes, however, are being reduced by admitting sea-water by sluice to the lagoon. Towards the low wooded hills south-east of Durazzo town there are reed beds, and the shingle bank carries the high road as far as Sasso Bianco (*Alb.* Shkamb i Kavajës; 330 ft.).

Lales bay (*Alb.* Gji i Lalzës) opens to north-west between Capes Pali and Rodoni. It is 12 miles from north-east to south-west and 4 miles deep in about 7–13 fathoms. There is shallow water inshore, especially to the south. This bay is the sunken lower valley of the Erzen river, which rises in Krrabë, leaves the Kërçokë hills above Shijak, and enters the sea with a small delta. The silt, carried to north-east or south-west by wind and current, has filled the greater part of Lales bay, and much of this deposit is marshy, especially north of the river, where there is a lagoon $2\frac{3}{4}$ miles long. There is temporary anchorage opposite this beach in 4–7 fathoms from 1 to 2 miles from the shore, and a long beach in the north-eastern half, beginning 4 miles from C. Rodoni. The whole of the M. i Kërçokës range is forested seawards, but its north-eastern slope is cultivated and populous.

The high road from Durazzo to Vorrë, for Tirana and for Lesh, crosses the populous valley of the Erzen at Shijak, 9 miles from the coast. Other settlements in this district are Sukth on the north bank of the Erzen 6 miles from the coast, Ndroq where the Erzen leaves the hills, and Jubë, a Yugoslav settlement about 2 miles from the coast on the left bank of the Erzen.

The north half of Lales bay has continuous open beach with marshy patches and a track connecting foothill villages between Shijak and Vorrë, but it is commanded by M. i Kërçokës.

Cape Rodoni (*Alb.* Kep i Rodonit) is narrow, bare, and high (512–675 ft.), covered with vegetation and trees except at the point, which is wind-swept and a good landmark. The lighthouse was abandoned in 1924. Off the point is a shoal (5 fathoms), and on either side of the cape is shallow water which stretches out $1\frac{1}{2}$ miles west-north-west.



FIG. 12. From Durazzo to Rodoni Bay

There is sheltered anchorage about $2\frac{1}{2}$ miles east of the cape and 1 mile from the shore; smaller vessels may anchor farther in.

The *Gulf of Drin* (*Alb.* Pellgu i Drinit) is a deep bay from C. Rodoni to the mouth of the Boyana river. From C. Rodoni to Menders point, where the coast trends north again to Bar (Antivari), is 26 miles. The gulf consists of two distinct sections: (1) the alluvial foreshore of the Ishm, Mat, and Drin rivers, opening west between C. Rodoni and the bluff sea-face of M. i Rrêncit; and (2) the nearly straight foreshore, facing south-west, formed by the silt of the Boyana river from Shëngjin (San Giovanni di Medua) to Ulcinj (Dulcigno), where the foothills of the Montenegrin Rumijā range reach the sea in Menders Point.

The *Ishm river* enters the sea obliquely through a long sand-bar 8 miles east of C. Rodoni: its silt, and the hill-wash from M. i Muzhllit (675 ft.), being driven east by wind and current. The Ishm is formed by the union of Lum i Tiranës, Lum i Turkuzës, and Lum i Zezës. The Lum i Tiranës rises north of the headwaters of the Erzen, traverses the Malsi e Krujës ridge by a gorge, and flows north-westward, receiving Lum i Turkuzës and Lum i Zezës from other Krujë gorges. The lower Ishm flows through marsh and rich pasture, but farther inland the valley floor is cultivated and prosperous right up to the forest belt on the Krujë ridge. Principal centres of this district are Tirana, the capital of Albania, and Krujë standing on a spur of the ridge which bears its name. At Vorrë the northward high road from Durazzo emerges from the seaward hills (M. i Kërçokës) and divides for Tirana and for Lesh. The road to Lesh crosses the Ishm north of Prezë, by the most northerly bridge over the river, which is deep throughout the year.

The *Drojë* issues from another gorge north of Krujë, traverses marshes and pasture, and enters the sea at Patok, about 2 miles north of the Ishm: there is open beach for 3 miles north of its mouth. The small timber ports south of the Ishm and at Patok are disused, but tracks, and an abandoned light railway, lead from them to the high road. The country inland is marshy but fertile in places, with small farms and copses.

The *Mat*, one of the larger rivers of Albania, rises in the Central Highland, drains a wide basin with numerous tributaries, and enters the coast plain at Milot, where it is crossed by the Tirana-Lesh motor-road. Its lower course, in several branches, is through marshes (Bregu i Matit) which extend north to the mouth of the Drin, but it reunites before reaching the sea.

From the mouth of the Mat to that of the Drin the coast is low,

with marsh, occasional sand-dunes, and a lagoon (about 4 miles from north to south and 2 miles across). Silt driven north from the Mat obstructs the shore as far north as the Drin mouth, but north of the Drin there is hard beach for 4 miles to the bend of the coast 2 miles east of Shëngjin, where the foothills of M. i Rrëncit reach the sea.

The *Drin* has a very long and complicated course and is by far the largest river of Albania. Its headwaters are south and north-east of Lake Ochrida, and its long northward trough is described on pp. 40-3. After traversing the Albanian Highlands it issues obliquely from a long westerly valley into the coast plain of Scutari, where it is known as the 'Great Drin' (*Drin i madh*). South of Scutari town it joins the Boyana 2 miles below its exit from the lake, and 15 miles in a direct line south-west to the sea at Pulaj. This is the present main course of the Drin, but formerly its only lower course flowed south-west out of the highland to Bushat in the coastal plain, then south-south-east to Lesh (Alessio), and finally by a narrow pass through a spur of M. i Veljës to a now much-reduced mouth, surrounded by lagoon and marsh. It was in 1858 that this latter course became so obstructed that the river burst its right bank 7 miles south-west of Scutari and cut a new bed west-north-west to join the Boyana. The old course, to the confluence with the Gjadër stream which comes from the Bjeshkë e Tërbunit highland, is now only a flood-channel. But below the narrow pass at Lesh, where it traverses the col between M. i Rrëncit and M. i Veljës, it is navigable by boats, and at its mouth it is 45 yards wide.

From Lesh a long narrow ridge, M. i Rrëncit, about 300 feet high, runs north-west parallel with the coast, sinking after 13 miles into the flood-plain of the Boyana. Five miles north-west of Lesh a spur reaches the coast at Shëngjin (San Giovanni di Medua), which has a lighthouse. Anchorages are: (1) on the east side of this spur, about $1\frac{1}{4}$ miles off shore, in 8 fathoms, sand and mud, exposed to south-west, but sheltered from *bora* and *sirocco* winds; (2) farther north-east, 750 yards south of the point, in 7-8 fathoms; smaller vessels can anchor inshore in $5\frac{1}{2}$ fathoms. There is a shoal east of the point. Above the point is a conspicuous barrack with other houses.

Shëngjin itself, the port of Lesh, lies 5 miles north of the mouth of the Drin and has a road to Lesh. The village is at the seaward foot of M. i Rrëncit, sheltered from north-east but exposed to south-west winds. This is the nearest port to Scutari, 25 miles distant by road through Lesh, and is described in greater detail on pp. 275-8.

From Shëngjin to Menders point, a distance of 25 miles, the



62. *Valona Bay: view NW. over northern shore of gulf. Cape Treporti and Ligen i Nartës in right background; Saseno Island in left background*



63. *Saseno Island, looking NNW.*



64. *Këneta e Durrësit: view west across marshy plain to M. i Durrësit*



65. *Coastal plain near Shëngjin*

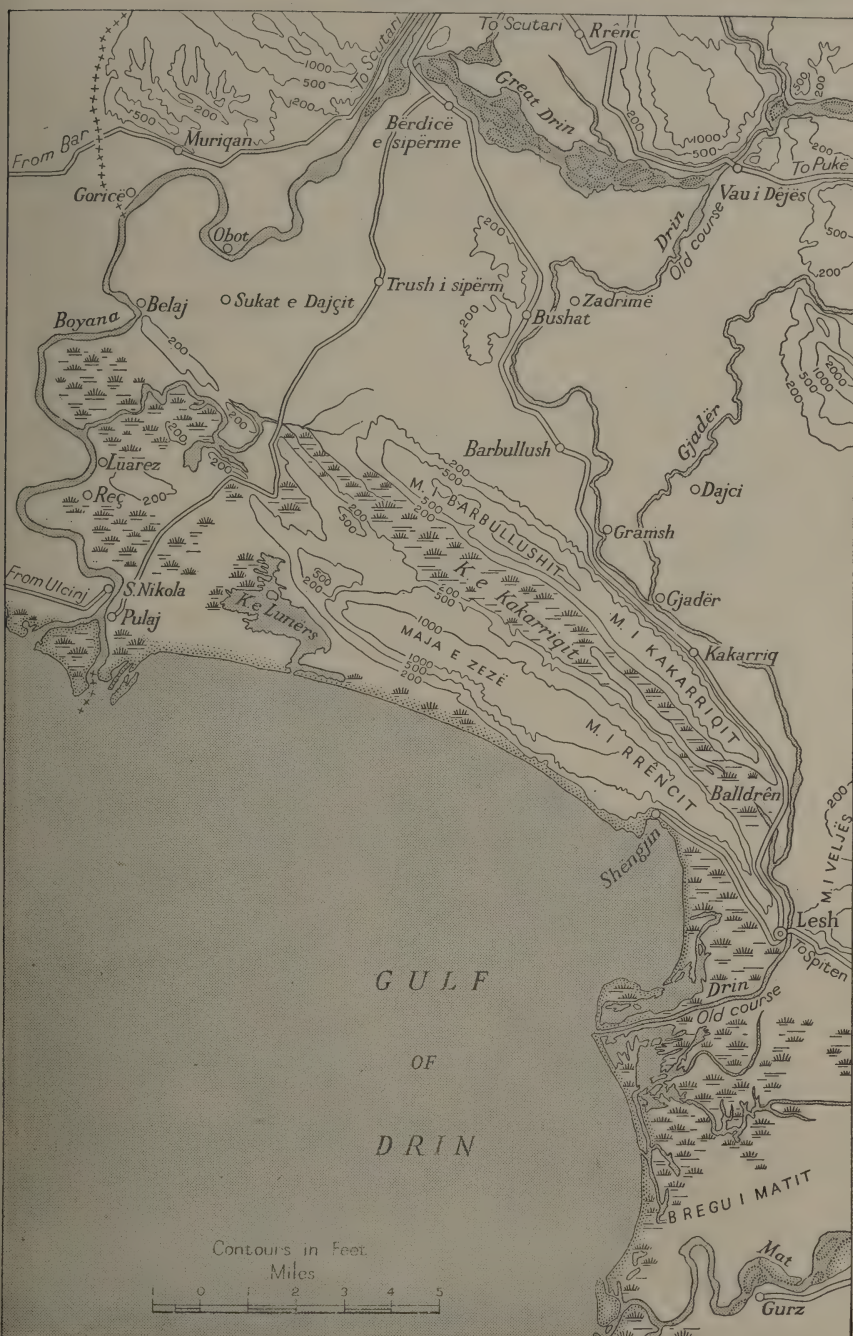


FIG. 13. Gulf of Drin

coast lies straight west-north-west, with the small delta of the Boyana river 10 miles west of Shëngjin. Most of this coast is open beach, with silt around the Boyana mouth, and marsh and sandhills inland 15 miles to Scutari. But there is no exit landwards except one swampy track west of M. i Rrëncit through marshes to Scutari. Inland of the M. i Rrëncit ridge there is a long narrow lagoon (Knetë e Kakarriqit), drained north-west into the Boyana. The motor-road from Lesh to Scutari lies between this depression and the old course of the Drin, which it crosses at Lesh. The rest of the coast plain is alluvial and well wooded to the base of the mountains. At the mouth of the Boyana lie Pulaj and S. Nicola, with tracks to Scutari and to Ulcinj.

There is anchorage all along the coast from Shëngjin to Menders point, safe in off-shore winds and in *bora*, and best south and east of Pulaj; but there is a shifting bank of silt (5 fathoms) off the Boyana mouth.

Lake Scutari (*Alb.* Liqen i Shkodrës; *class.* Lacus Labeotis) fills the lower part of the wide valley of the Morača river, between the steep frontage of the highlands north-east of Scutari town and the gentler slope of the coast range (Rumija). It is of oval outline, 25 miles long, from Scutari north-west to Virpazar, and 8 miles wide exclusive of the Liqen i Hotit, a drowned valley midway on its north-east side, which penetrates 9 miles into the highland. Besides the Morača river from the north, which drains also the Zeta and Cijevna (*Alb.* Cem) valleys, it receives on its north-east side Prroni i thatë, the Kir, and several smaller streams out of the highland.

The general depth of the lake is from 1 to 4 fathoms; very shallow at the north-west end, but with deeps (to 24 fathoms) along the west shore. Its normal level is about 20 feet above the sea, but rises 9 or 10 feet in winter and floods the town of Scutari. There are many fish, especially a kind of sardine called *scoranza* (*Leuciscus alburnus*; *Serb.* ukljeva), which is netted and salted for export. In the marshes pelicans, herons, cranes, and ducks are common. Navigation is easy except in heavy floods. At the north end there is a light railway from Virpazar to Bar.

The *Boyana river* (*class.* Barbana; *Alb.* Buenë; *Serb. and Croat.* Bojana) issues from the south-west angle of Lake Scutari and flows south-south-west, in a sinuous channel 100–150 yards wide and about 8 feet deep, to the sea 10 miles west of Shëngjin and about 24 miles from Scutari. The south-east mouth is the larger, and navigable for vessels of 150 tons for half its course, and for smaller craft nearly to

Scutari town, where it is crossed by a very low bridge on the road to Ulcinj and to Bar. In the bends at Luarez and at Belaj are strong currents, and shoals above Goricë. There is risk of obstruction at Obot in the east bend, 7 miles from Scutari. After rain the current is rapid and overflows the banks, and the mouths are variable. On the bar, which is very steep seawards, there is often a swell; within it is anchorage at 8-15 feet in sand and mud. At Pulaj is a health office, and a pilot may be obtained.

About 5 miles north-west and 1 mile off shore, and off the south-east mouth, is Gur i Gjeranis (*Serb.* Kamen Oderane) islet, 13 feet high, with a sunken rock outside, 10-11 fathoms close to and 8 fathoms inshore. Eight miles west of the Boyana, at Derana point, the beach is interrupted by the outlet of the Zoganje lake (*Serb.* Zogajsko Blato), where there are large salt-pans with small jetties and a ferry. Zoganje village is on the foothills of Brivska Gora about 3 miles from the coast, with tracks to Scutari and Ulcinj.

West of the Boyana lowland the spurs of the Rumija range rise rapidly to 2,045 feet, 4 miles north of Ulcinj, with a long eastward spur (1,878 ft.) to the south end of Lake Scutari, opposite the town.

CHAPTER IV

CLIMATE

ALBANIA lies on the margin between two major atmospheric regions and between two distinct systems of air-circulation. The distribution of them all follows the annual course of the sun, lying farther north in summer and farther south in winter.

(1) In winter there is a vast high-pressure area in lat. 20° – 45° N. with a maximum in the Azores, and a long promontory over France and southern Germany connecting it with a still larger area over eastern Europe and central Asia. At the same season there is also an area of low pressure over the Mediterranean and the north shore of Africa. Consequently winds in the northern marginal zone are northerly, cold, and dry, with clear and still nights and low temperature. In summer the low-pressure belt lies from the Mediterranean and Saharan Africa to the Persian Gulf, with northerly winds over Italy, the Balkan peninsula, and the Aegean.

The Balkan peninsula, being one of the greater land-masses that project into the Mediterranean area, has a climate nearly related to that of eastern Europe, with very low winter temperatures, especially at high altitudes, emphasized by the cold north and north-easterly winds from snow-covered mountains and plateaux. The summer, on the other hand, is hot, especially in the plains, and rain falls fairly evenly throughout the year, with maxima in June and November. The Mediterranean, on the other hand, has much rain in winter but little or none in summer.

(2) Albania is also in the latitude of the margin between the west-wind belt of the north Atlantic and western Europe, and the trade winds of the northern hemisphere. This margin also moves north in summer and south in winter. At all seasons cyclonic depressions, originating in the north Atlantic or farther west, move eastwards and traverse the Mediterranean towards the low-pressure area of the Persian Gulf. These are most extensive and violent in the winter; in summer, when they are slightest, the prevalent winds of the Mediterranean are northerly 'trade-winds', veering according to longitude, to north-west towards the Persian Gulf, and to north-east towards the Sahara. These trade-winds become stronger and steadier as they blow south, and also warmer and drier.

(3) The main source of Albanian rainfall, on the other hand, is the

cyclones. These are either of Atlantic or of Mediterranean origin; for in addition to those depressions which pass eastwards from the Atlantic, others originate within the Mediterranean area and even in the Adriatic by reason of upward currents of warm air from the water-surface, whenever that is warmer than the atmosphere above it or around its shores. This effect is most intense at the coldest season, and in the neighbourhood of lofty coasts with down-draught

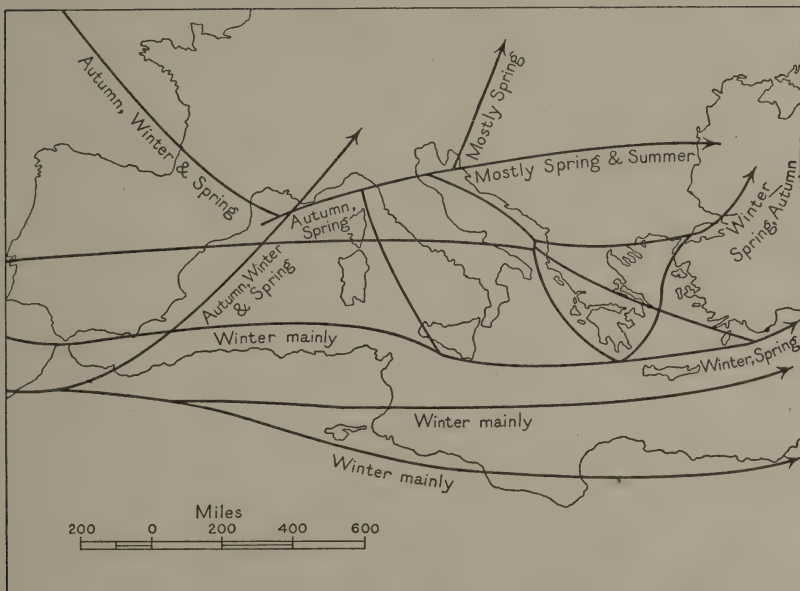


FIG. 14. *Seasonal movements of depressions*

of cold land-breeze. In particular the deep landlocked trough of the Adriatic, overlooked by the Dinaric mountain chains, has a low-pressure area of its own, with frequent cyclonic depressions which, once established, move in the same general direction as other Mediterranean cyclones, namely from north-west to south-east, and so on along the coasts of Greece and Crete, causing off-shore winds along the east coast of Italy, and south-westerly and westerly winds on the Albanian coast. These, moving inland, soon rise against the façade of the highlands and precipitate copious rainfall. They also accelerate the general circulation of Mediterranean sea-currents, which are here uniformly alongshore to north-westward; bringing warmer surface water into the Adriatic and mitigating the winter cold, while increasing

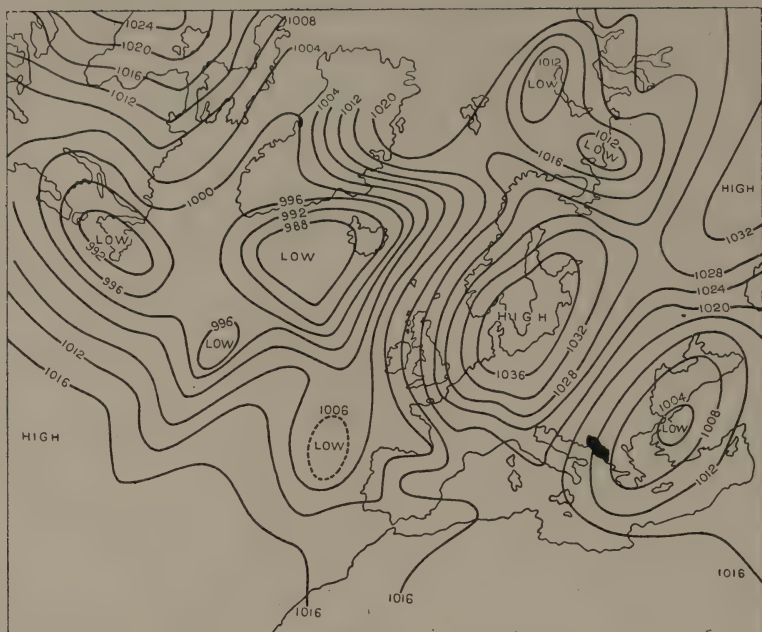


FIG. 15. *Weather Chart: 20 March 1935*

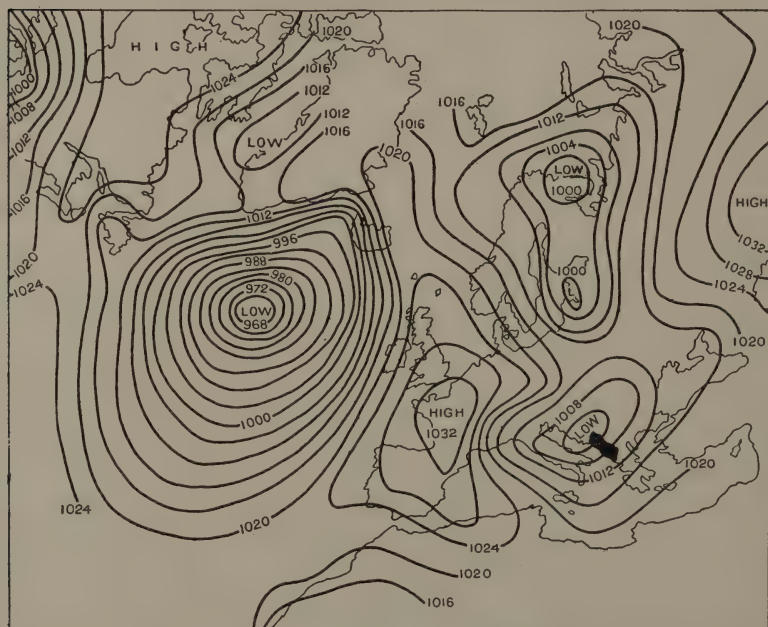


FIG. 16. *Weather Chart: 21 March 1933*

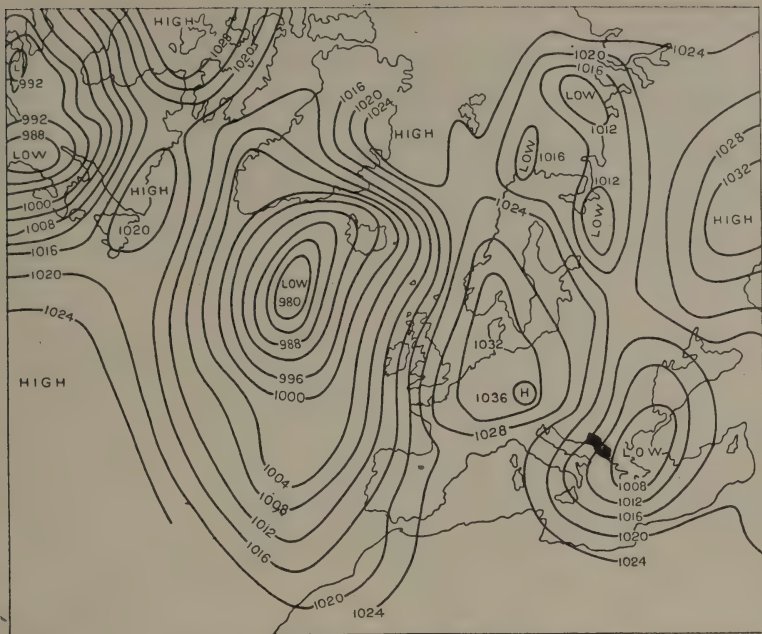


FIG. 17. *Weather Chart: 22 March 1933*



FIG. 18. *Weather Chart: 23 March 1933*

summer humidity on the coast. At all seasons the local up-draught of warm air causes thunderstorms, especially among the mountain valleys. Hence Albania has one of the highest rainfalls in the Mediterranean region (60 inches), exceeded only by that of the seaward slope of the Caucasus.

Characteristics of the Albanian climate are therefore the extreme cold and heavy rainfall of winter, the wide variations of temperature,

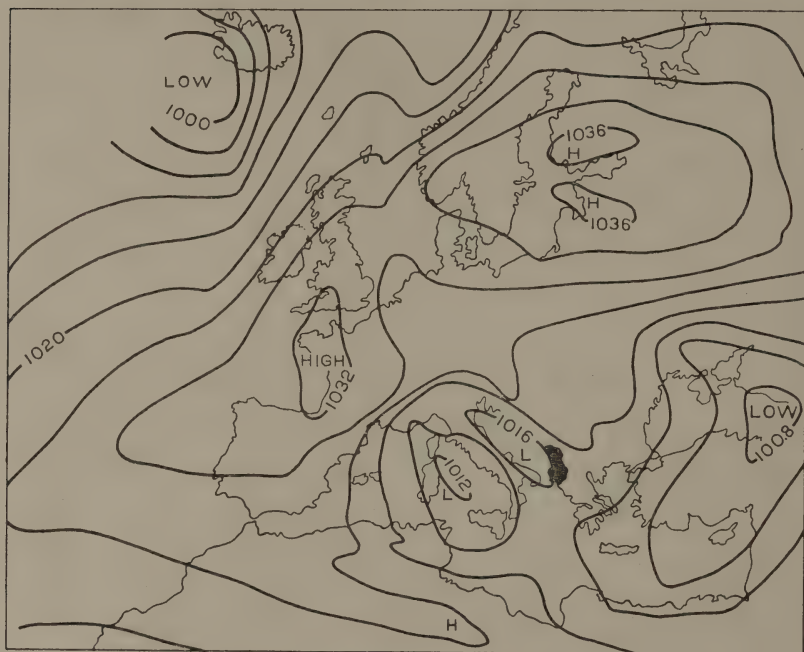


FIG. 19. *Weather Chart: 18 December 1928*

the violent winds, and the summer drought with high lowland temperatures. The most marked contrasts are those between the rain-washed western façade of the northern highland and the comparatively sheltered interior, and between the southern highlands and the Albanian Riviera which looks out over warm open sea, is screened landwards by the high ridges of Laberia, and enjoys Mediterranean conditions. Not so marked but still considerable is the contrast between the Alpine north and the less continuously elevated centre and south. In the interior, districts north of the Krrabë plateau are exposed to the intense cold of the *bora* wind, whilst the south is sheltered by that barrier.

Weather conditions, however, vary greatly from year to year, as well as from week to week during the passage of a cyclone. Most of these depressions travel along the Adriatic, but others follow the valley of the Save, and others again pass farther north still, through Moravia and south-eastern Germany, and miss the Adriatic altogether; and their effects on Albanian weather are limited accordingly to the Northern Highlands. For, after a cyclone has passed, easterly winds flowing up the Vardar trough bring broken weather into the eastern districts of Albania.

The high relief modifies Mediterranean conditions even in Epirus, where the mountains reach the coast. The change of climate is most marked along the Krujë ridge and its southward prolongation in M. i Shpatit; northward the transition is more gradual. Between northern and southern Albania there are further contrasts, e.g. between the Çermenikë highland and the Debar basin, better illustrated by the spread of continental beech forest than by the scanty meteorological data.

Temperature

Summer day-temperatures rise rapidly in the lowland, but the maxima are never very high (average 95° F.): Scutari 93.2° (abs. max. 101°); Durazzo 91.4° (abs. 95°); Valona 104° . The highest recorded at Elbasan is 103.6° F. in August. The moderating influence is the sea. But Scutari has 4 months with over 86° and Valona 6 months. The nights, however, are very warm, the July average for all stations being nearly 77° , making the climate oppressive for Europeans, especially in the forenoon before the rise of the sea-breeze, which is very regular all along the coast. Hence the wide distribution of Mediterranean fruit-trees and of rice-culture, and also the prevalence of malaria.

Summer temperatures persist far into autumn (Sept. av. 68°), which is 7° to 8° warmer than spring—another maritime feature, due to the retention of summer heat by the sea-water, after the land has cooled, and of winter cold far into the spring. In the highlands, however, September is chilly, though the enclosed valleys long remain warm (over 77°). The absolute maximum (c. 100°) is greater than in the coastland in spite of the altitude. But the nights are cooler, and it may be very cold in the heights. For example, there is frost in September at 4,600 feet on the Qafë e Lumit north-west of Peshkopi.

The winter is mild, especially on the coast (Jan. av. Durazzo 47° ,

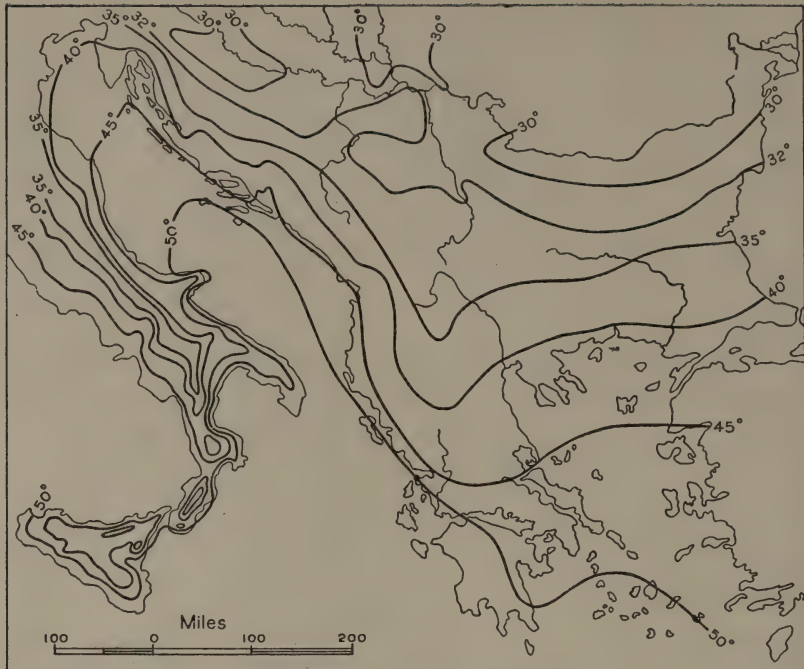


FIG. 20. *Mean Temperatures: January*

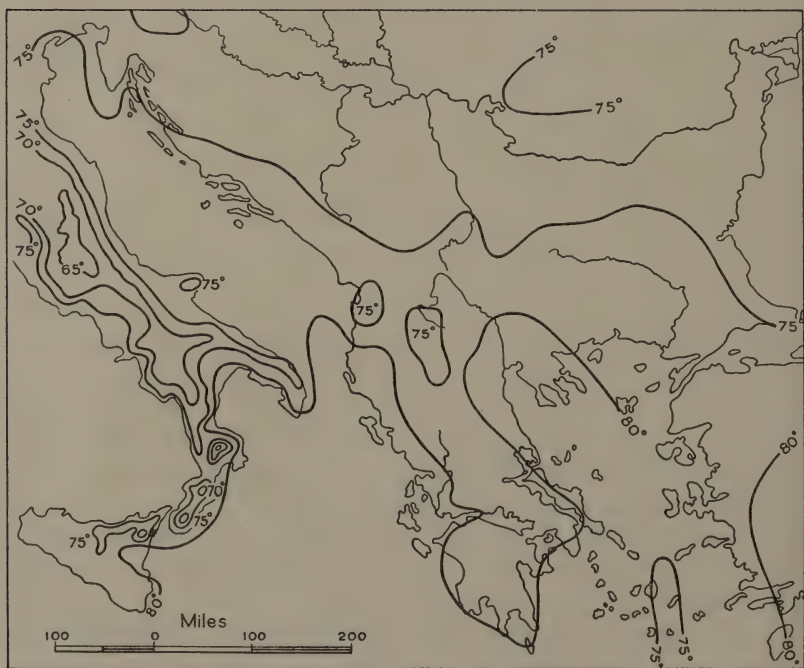


FIG. 21. *Mean Temperatures: July*

Valona 48°), but the temperatures sink rapidly inland (all stations 42.8° – 39.2° ; Scutari 40° , Tirana 41.9° , Elbasan 40.8° , Berat 43°). Contrast these figures with the temperatures normal for July; Durazzo 61.7° , Valona 60.8° , and much higher in the interior. But there are frosts in January, even on the coast. They are caused by cold winds from the interior, and much feared for their damage to olives and other Mediterranean plants, which are restricted thereby to sheltered localities with south and west aspect. Snow may fall anywhere, but only lies long in the interior; in some highland districts it is very heavy. For winter weather, however, there are but few observations, especially in the snow-bound highlands.

Humidity

The following percentages are recorded for Durazzo:

<i>Jan.</i>	<i>Feb.</i>	<i>Mar.</i>	<i>Apr.</i>	<i>May</i>	<i>June</i>	<i>July</i>	<i>Aug.</i>	<i>Sept.</i>	<i>Oct.</i>	<i>Nov.</i>	<i>Dec.</i>
77	74	73	72	73	71	68	71	73	78	79	80

The anomalous rise in May is at a season when the stronger sun is evaporating the swamps along the coast and the late showers before they sink into the ground.

Rainfall

The rainy season begins in the lowland in September, with intermittent showers, when the temperature sinks and the Mediterranean cyclones become stronger. Rain falls chiefly on a south wind, and is usually concentrated into heavy showers on a few days or even one day in a month, after which the sky clears, as is usual in the Mediterranean. Valona has 62 per cent. of its rain in September, Scutari 51 per cent. in September, Durazzo 51 per cent. in December. The rainfall maximum for all stations generally is in November, with a smaller peak in March. Berat illustrates the regime of the trough-valleys of Epirus, but a good deal of convection-rain falls on the mountains, with frequent thunderstorms; and the rainless season only lasts about three months, from June to August.

In the Northern Highland the summer is considerably wetter, with heavy downfalls in July and August. In the lowlands it is so dry that irrigation is necessary and extensively practised with wooden conduits and other primitive devices. In Epirus settlement is restricted to the neighbourhood of deep-seated springs.

In coastal Albania and Epirus the 'etesian' trade-winds from the north-west begin in May, and the warm dry summer lasts from June

to October. The only moisture on the coast is brought by the *scirocco*, a frequent after-effect of the winter regime, bringing cloud and thunderstorms on to the high coast ranges; rain, however, is already rare. But of 39·37–47·24 in. annual rainfall, 2·16 in. from May to August is the average for the lowland stations, Durazzo, Tirana, Elbasan, Berat, and Valona, or omitting Berat, only 1·96 in.,

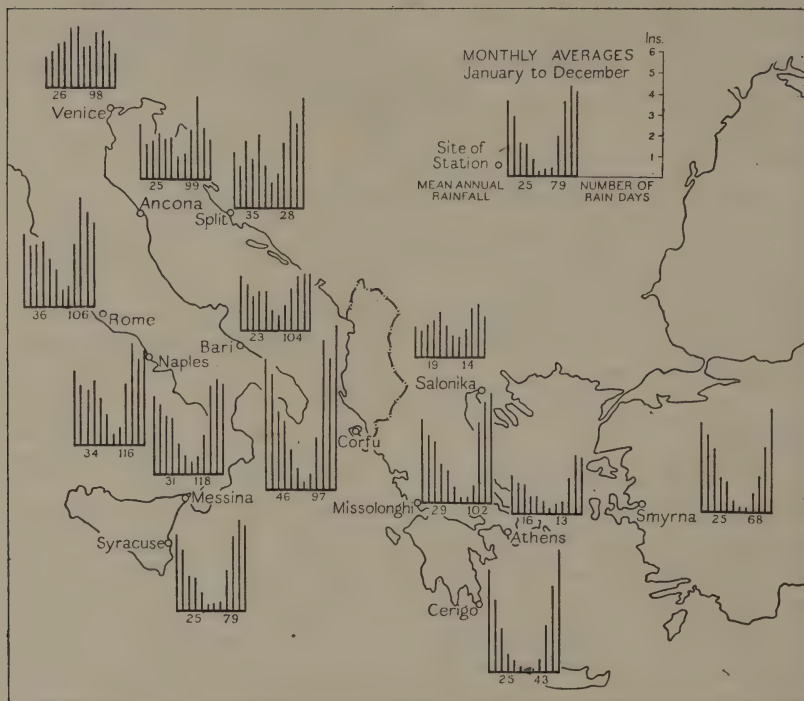


FIG. 22. Rainfall, Monthly Averages and numbers of Rain-days

with 0·59 in. for July. Scutari, on the other hand, has an average of 36 in. in May, out of 57 in. annual. These figures are typically Mediterranean. The effect on vegetation is increased by the long periods of drought, increasing greatly southward and by the concentration of rainfall in a few violent downpours. Scutari has 25 rainless days (max. 31·89 in.), Durazzo 32 (max. 21·26 in.), Valona 44 (max. 27·16 in.). The rainy season ends in April.

With the following figures should be compared those for Prizren, farther inland, but more representative of inland Albania than those

of the local stations: Oct. max. 7·36 in. (1887), with another peak in June; December min. 1·18 in.; April max. (1886) 4·29 (no summer peak); Feb. min. 0·83 in.

Recording stations	Annual		November		March		July	
	mm.	in.	mm.	in.	mm.	in.	mm.	in.
Scutari .	1,456	57·35	209	8·23	162	6·38	29 ¹	1·14 ¹
Durazzo .	1,090	42·94	215	8·47	100	3·94	12	0·47
Tirana .	1,020	40·19	201	7·91	94	3·70	11	0·43
Elbasan .	1,120	44·12	221	8·70	103	4·06	12	0·47
Berat .	1,200	47·24	217	8·54	103	4·06	14	0·55
Valona .	1,080	42·55	195	7·68	107	4·21	13	0·51
Krujë .	1,710	67·35	337	13·26	157	6·18	19	0·75
Pukë .	1,820	71·68	260	10·24	203	7·99	36 ¹	1·42 ¹

¹ In August.

The heavy winter rains cause widespread morasses and dislocate transport, especially in the slippery clay soil of the *flysch* districts.

Frost

There is little frost in the coastland, but much in winter in the mountains, restricting cultivation except in very sheltered localities. The highland lakes are frozen, and more rarely the coast lagoons.

Snow

In the highlands snow may fall at any time from November to April and is frequent in December, January, and February. It is periodic like the rainfall, and near the coast melts rapidly with a change of wind to south or west.

Winds

The general circulation described above, with cyclonic depressions moving south-eastwards, gives a succession of strong, mild, southerly and south-westerly winds, with cloud and often heavy rain, followed, as the depression moves forward, by cold north-westerly winds, which may bring snow, and are followed by calm and bright weather. These cyclones are larger and more frequent in winter, but may occur far on into the summer; there are consequently spells of light winds, lasting 3-4 days. There is, however, often a calm interval about the equinoxes. Winds of gale force are not frequent, but local ravine winds are strong and frequent in winter, especially in the lower Drin and in valley mouths and

sheltered bays everywhere. Local sailors anchor where vegetation is dense, because devastation results from these squalls. On the coast there is daily alternation of winds during the summer months; a land-breeze gently seaward from shortly after sunset until about sunrise, followed by a few hours of calm, and then a sea-breeze increasing through the afternoon—sometimes augmented by cold air from the highlands—and sinking by sunset. Consequently in summer the morning hours are often hotter than the afternoon. Calms are infrequent except in summer.

The *bora* (*Gk.* boreas, 'north wind') is a local winter wind resulting from the proximity of warm sea to cold land, the thermal gradient on this coast being one of the steepest in Europe. It ranges from the head of the Adriatic to western Greece, becoming less frequent and violent southward: in Albania it has gale-force 6–7 on 4 days from December to April. During the days preceding the *bora* unusually cold air accumulates in anticyclonic calm in the highland valleys. If now a depression passes along the Adriatic, this cold air is drawn seaward, very dry and cloudless. Similar cold winds blow into the north Aegean, from the Balkan interior, and into the west Mediterranean from the Rhone valley (*Fr.* *mistral*, *It.* *maestro*, from *Lat.* *magistralis* 'masterful').

Conversely, the continuous high relief of the land limits the inland spread of moist temperate currents from the sea, as a cyclone approaches from Italy, causing the warm, moist, hazy *scirocco* from south and south-east. The Albanian plain is, however, wide enough to escape the low cloud and bad weather of the foothills. This Adriatic *scirocco* is not to be confused with the dry, hot *scirocco* of Italy and southern Spain.

Clouds

Clouds are rare after May, especially in the lowland: in the mountains convection clouds are commoner, but the air is usually very dry. Corfu has only 10 per cent. cloudiness in July, Valona 14 per cent., Scutari (Aug.) 60 per cent., Durazzo (July) 68 per cent.: annual average, below 75 per cent. But there is often mist over the lowlands.

Thunderstorms

The greatest number of thunderstorms occur in the summer months and bring much rain while they last. Principal causes are the high temperature, light winds, and rapid condensation common to mountain regions. Short periods of high temperature and low

humidity, with calm or light breeze, are followed by thunderstorms, more or less violent, and by cooler, moister, and more pleasant weather.

Sea and Swell

Winds are usually off shore or alongshore, and the sea-breeze may be troublesome in the afternoon. As throughout the Adriatic, strong swell is rare. Between Cape Linguetta (Kep i Gjuhëzës) and the Corfu channel there may be long swell from the Ionian Sea and lively waves in the afternoon breeze.

Visibility

Visibility is good, except during *scirocco*, and best along the low coast between Durazzo and Valona; but there may be mirage and occasional fog locally. In the highlands, however, there is much low cloud.

CHAPTER V

FLORA AND VEGETATION

ALBANIA is a small country, but its plant-life is relatively rich and of particular interest for several reasons. Through its climate and geographical position it includes domains of two botanical regions, the Mediterranean and Central European, and transitions between them. Its physiography is very varied, and its altitude ranges from coastal plains to high mountains. The rocks and the soils produced from them are also of many different kinds. Lastly, man's interference with the natural vegetation, though it has been great, has been less intense and less continuous than in most other parts of the Balkan peninsula.

In what follows, a summary of the factors which govern plant-life is followed by a statement of the botanical divisions which correspond to those of the physical description. Then comes a brief description of the most obvious and important types of vegetation, and finally a more detailed analysis of the flora and vegetation.

SUMMARY

The Factors affecting Plant-life

The factors which control the distribution of plants are the climate, the topography, the soil, and the influence of all forms of life, including that of the plants themselves. The last factor is usually known as the biotic.

In the previous chapter we have seen how Albania includes areas characteristic of both the Central European and the Mediterranean climates. Similarly it includes areas of Central European and of Mediterranean vegetation and flora. In the former a hot summer, a cold winter, and a rainfall spread evenly over the year correspond to summer fertility and winter rest. In the latter a wet and cool, rather than cold, winter is followed by a dry summer, whilst plant-life tends to flower and seed in the spring, or very early summer, and to lie dormant in the summer drought. Winter-green and even winter-flowering plants are not uncommon. Seasonal variation, indeed, is the most important climatic factor. In general it may be said that an ample rainfall by maintaining denser plant-cover moderates erosion, conserves the water-supply, and is itself accommodated to the land-relief and climate in a well-marked sequence of plant-

communities, related essentially to altitude and to aspect, but also to latitude and to soil-composition. Light is a matter of importance, but Albania is so relatively small a country that differences of light are not due to latitude but to altitude, to slope or aspect, and to plant or forest cover.

Albanian soils, not yet fully investigated, are described in Chapter II. The limestone, serpentine, and *flysch* therein mentioned affect local water resources, erosion, and the local water-table differently. They weather into soils of differing fertility and at different rates due to altitude and temperature. Thus in the Albanian mountains there is much bare rock and increased erosion. The removal, by swift streams from nearby heights, of gravel and silt, its deposition, and the formation of the many and often saline marshes and lagoons have introduced special conditions near the coast.

Lastly, man, animals, and the vegetation of the past and the present have modified, and continue to modify, natural conditions. Albanian vegetation has tended to forest growth as its 'climax'. Animals have not been so destructive here as elsewhere in the Balkan peninsula. There are no large herds of wild herbivores, although the ever-destructive goat is active; but by the destruction of forests and brushwoods man has changed the face of large areas. Fire, both accidental and deliberate, cutting for fuel, charcoal burning, and lumbering have greatly reduced the most accessible forests and replaced them by rough pasture or brushwood. Grazing flocks and herds prevent new forest-growth, and are driven from lowland winter pastures to the hills and plateaux in the summer. The upper tree limit has been lowered in consequence.

Albanian agriculture is primitive, but, below the barren peaks and ridges and the forests which still cover considerable areas, farming has replaced much natural plant-cover. Brief references to crops and agricultural methods are therefore unavoidable.

The conditions so briefly outlined above are not independent of each other. They interact perpetually and, in their sum total, they make of Albania an area as distinctive in vegetation and flora as it is in climate and topography, although the 'Mediterranean' regime extends north-west and south-east into Dalmatia and Greece, whilst eastwards and northwards the 'Central European' extends into Serbia and Montenegro.

Botanical Divisions (see Fig. 4, p. 20).

No entirely satisfactory subdivision of Albania on the basis of the

plant-life of the country has yet been proposed. Some parts, especially in the south, have not been fully explored botanically, especially from the standpoint of the vegetation. In so mountainous a country climate cannot be uniform over wide areas and differences of altitude are superimposed on those of position. There are other complications, such as the periodical flooding of many low-lying districts, and the consequent appearance of plants not normally characteristic of the climate in question. The following scheme of botanical subdivisions is, therefore, adopted, not because the subdivisions are sharply distinguished one from another, but because on the whole they show differences of both flora and vegetation, sometimes qualitative, sometimes quantitative. They are, not unnaturally, much the same as those of the Physical Description.

Lowland Albania.	Fig. 4	Highland Albania.	Fig. 4
a. Coastal Lowland.	I A B & C	c. North Albanian Alps.	II A
b. Coastal Epirus.	II D ₃	d. Central Highlands.	II B & C
		e. Southern Highlands.	II D 1 & 2

I. *Lowland Albania* has an essentially Mediterranean type of climate and, consequently, except where local conditions override climate, a flora of Mediterranean type and evergreen hard-leaved vegetation. There is no sharp boundary between the Mediterranean and Central European types of climate, and inland the plant communities become gradually less typically Mediterranean.

a. *Coastal Lowland*. This stretches southwards from the northern boundary to about the latitude of Valona. Included in this district are the main areas of arable land. Along the coast itself there are the maritime plant communities: submerged ones off shore, sand-stretches, and especially salt-marshes along the shore itself. The principal land communities may be briefly indicated from north to south. In the extreme north, east of Lake Scutari, there are oakwoods. From Scutari town to a few miles north of Lesh (Alessio) there is much marshy ground. Thence south to the lower course of the Ishm river there are extensive dense marsh-woodlands, inland of which are *maquis* and oakwoods. Between Mamuras and the Shkumbî river there are oakwoods, with marshes and marsh woodland nearer the coast, and frequent areas of *maquis*. From the river Shkumbî to Valona oakwoods are fewer, but marshes and marsh woodlands again occupy large areas near the coast. *Maquis* apparently becomes more frequent southwards, but much of the area still awaits botanical investigation. It is evident that the extensive development of marsh

and marsh-woodland, with the occurrence of oakwoods and *maquis* where the ground is drier, are the main features of this district, while the flora is essentially Mediterranean.

b. Coastal Epirus. In this district typical Mediterranean communities are dominant nearly everywhere, and there is only local and restricted development of marshy ground. The coast is much steeper and more rocky than farther north, and salt-marshes and sand-stretches are mainly limited to the Valona bay area. Oakwoods appear again towards the south. Mediterranean *maquis* are especially characteristic, and the kermes oak (*Quercus coccifera*), as a prickly shrub, is often abundant. On the mountains (Lungara, M. i Çikës, and others between the Vijosë river and the coast) there is much forest, especially of Greek fir, with white-barked pines and a little beech. There are extensive olive plantations, and the collection of tanning materials from the vallona oak (*Quercus aegilops*) is locally important.

II. *Highland Albania* is mountainous, and both altitude and distance from the coast make it more Central European in climate and in plant-life than are the western lowlands or the south-western mountains. In the extreme south and on seaward aspects, however, Mediterranean influences make themselves felt.

c. The North Albanian Alps. At the highest altitudes there are the most extensive developments of high-mountain 'mat'-communities. The cloud-forest belt is greatly developed, with white-barked pine and beech as principal constituents. Below this there are oak forests surrounding all the higher-lying forests of beech and pine. While there are a considerable number of plants found only in Albania, or only in the Balkan peninsula, the flora on the whole, like the plant communities, is of Central European type.

d. The Central Highlands. This, too, is an area of mountain forests of a Central European type. The very highest peaks show herbaceous 'mat'-communities. The cloud-forest belt is extremely well developed, and there are great areas of 'dry oakwood' on the valley slopes between the higher massifs. There is some difference in the cloud-forest belt north and south of a slightly concave line drawn approximately from Debar to Tirana. To the north the beech is often more or less replaced by conifers, especially by black pine. The peuke-pine also occurs here frequently. To the south of the line the beech forest over large areas is pure, and conifers are rather exceptional.

e. Southern Highlands. In this district conditions are less favourable to the beech. On the highest summits there are 'mat'-com-

munities, but of a less Central European type than farther north. The mountain forest is largely coniferous, with black pine and some Greek fir, though beech also occurs locally on many of the mountains. Dry oakwoods are very extensively developed. In the extreme south there is some *maquis* in sheltered low-lying river valleys.

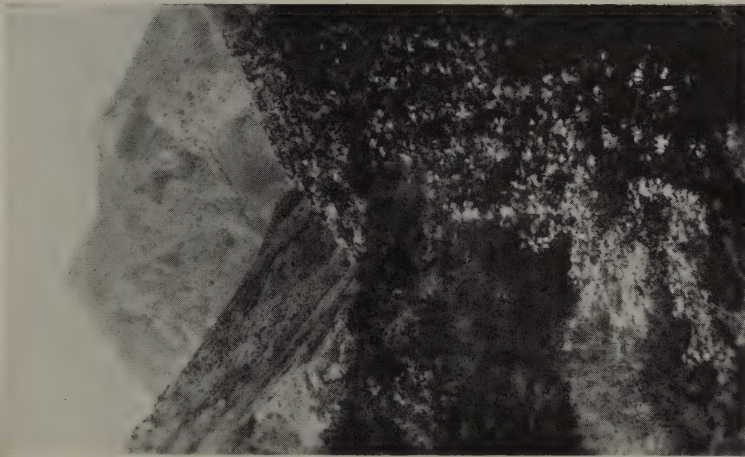
Brief Description of the Vegetation

The four main types are:

- (1) the evergreen scrub (*Fr. maquis*; *It. macchia*) characteristic of Mediterranean lands, but in Albania almost confined to coast districts;
- (2) the oak forests of the lower slopes and most of the interior;
- (3) the beech forests, on higher and moister ranges alternating with pine forest on the drier subsoils; and
- (4) the alpine vegetation of the peaks and ridges above tree-level.

(1) *Evergreen Scrub of Mediterranean Types* consists of hard-leaved bushes up to 12–15 feet high, often thorny and laced with prickly creepers, essentially maritime, and interspersed with deciduous shrubs inland. The cold north winds confine it to sheltered south and west aspects in south Albania and coastal Epirus; it is best exhibited on the 'Albanian Riviera' between Valona and Himarë, but it disappears even in the coastland north of the Krujë hills. It also occurs inland, as at Fusha e Bullit in the Gostimë valley south-east of Elbasan. Typical evergreen species are *Quercus ilex*, *Pistacia lentiscus*, *Erica arborea*, and *Arbutus unedo*, the berries of which are eaten. It rises to 1,600 feet in M. i Dajtit east of Tirana, to 1,150 feet in M. i Çikës south of Valona, to 650–900 feet at Durazzo, and to 650 feet near Scutari. Occupying fertile localities, it has been much devastated by man and replaced by characteristic oases of tree crops—olive, orange, fig, pomegranate, vine—with cereals, vegetables, and tobacco between the trees, and irrigation from mountain-streams; even rice is grown at Labinot east of Elbasan, and on the L. i Kalasës at Delvinë.

(2) *Oak Forest* begins in the upper margin of the *maquis* and is continuous from the seaboard into the highlands, other trees, and especially deciduous and half-evergreen species, sometimes giving place to *Quercus macedonica*. The undergrowth is similar. In summer there is some shade, but oppressive and seldom cool. There are wild boars and herded swine, few birds, but many insects. Very little is now virgin forest; much is second growth, stunted by the harvest-



66. A low gorge, on the Himarë coast, with characteristic shrubby vegetation. On the right small specimens of oriental plane (*Platanus orientalis*). Other shrubs are oleander (*Nerium oleander*), pomegranate (*Punica granatum*), and chaste-tree (*Vitex agnus-castus*). The last is leafless till late May or early June. M. i Çorajt in background



67. Pines and bracken on rocky slopes near Voskopojë



68. Beech forest and pastures on a pass 7 miles east of Lekaj



69. Beech forest below Alpine pasture. Markdedaj in valley
of L. i Shalës

ing of shoots and foliage for fodder and by fuel-cutting, especially near settlements. It is thick enough to check rain erosion, but cannot resist the mountain torrents, especially on the limestones of Epirus, where a few old trees testify to former extension. Here it is replaced by rock-strewn communities with dwarf juniper, broom, sage (*Phlomis fruticosa*), salvia, and spurge; on *flysch* areas by bracken (*Pteridium aquilinum*); and on serpentine by box and juniper, sometimes of great size and age. On less rugged ground and the drier coast-plains it passes into a tangled scrub—*Arbutus*, *Pistacia*, privet, box, with deciduous thorny *Paliurus spinachristi* (Christ-thorn), wild plum, crab-apple, and blackberry, and moister stretches of coarse grass and reedy meadow. Farther inland appear *Forsythia europea*, Judas-tree, and hazel. These secondary plant associations include many flowering plants, and attract honey-bees and many kinds of insects, and the lizards and tortoises which prey on them.

By stream-beds grow planes (*Platanus orientalis*) of great size and age, tamarisk, willow, poplar, and maple, with reeds and other marsh-plants.

This oak-forest vegetation extends far inland, but is abruptly replaced upwards by beech woods as soon as there is moisture enough. The oak boundary is about 3,000 feet at Scutari, but ascends southward to 3,300 feet on M. i Dajtit near Tirana.

(3) *Beech Forests* only occur sporadically in the south, but become more continuous northward, wherever there is moisture enough. They grow close, with dense cool shade and little undergrowth, but there are glades of open meadow, and beech trees are interspersed with pines on the drier soils, especially on ridges. Northward on Nezhda e Lurës the pines begin to form an upper border. But there is no extensive pine zone as in central and northern Europe. On more porous soils—the *flysch* of Çermenikë, Malet e Mokrës, the ranges west of the Shkumbî, and on M. i Tomorrit—the beech zone fades out, and the oaks rise to the alpine limit.

The beech grows best on the limestones, and in these conditions there are a few as far south as M. i Çikës south of Valona. But, like the oak, it is accompanied by the black pine (*Pinus nigra*) on serpentine ridges, notably by white-barked pine (*P. leucodermis*) along the Black Drin, and on the gypsum of Korab. Conversely, where there is water enough, beech forest conserves it, though the subsoil be porous, as in karst areas: in north Albania many small streams emerge from the lower margin of the beech wood.

(4) *The Alpine Treeless Zone* descends lower, to 5,250 or 5,600 feet

near the coast in Cukali, M. i Dajtit, and M. i Skanderbeut than in the highlands of south Epirus. This conforms to the supply of moisture, but there is no continuous gradient; in the south it rises to 5,900 feet in M. i Shpatit and 6,600 feet in Gur i Topit between the rivers Devoll and Shkumbî and in M. i Gjalicës beyond the upper Drin, because the coast ranges of Epirus intercept marine moisture. The rocky surface bears spring grass and many flowers: its area is large and is being increased by over-pasturing.

To these natural types of vegetation man's interference has added two more:

(5) *Tree Plantations*, characteristic of Mediterranean culture, are confined to the evergreen zone, and supplemented between the trees by catch-crops of cereals, vegetables, and garden-fruit.

(6) *Cereals* have first place as substitutes for the natural pastures within the oak-zone, where there is less moisture; but the need for winter-grazing limits this exploitation.

DETAILED DESCRIPTION

Foreword

In the following account of the flora (that is, of the different kinds, or species, of plants present) and of the vegetation (that is, of the grouping of plants into communities) the principal features of the flora are summarized, and details of the more important plant communities are given.

As far as possible English names of plants are used, or, alternatively, such indication is given as will enable the reader to connect a named species with some generally familiar plant. It is, however, essential for many purposes to use botanical names in Latin. Such names make for precision by avoiding the ambiguities which often arise from the use of common names alone. Hence, in the following account, the Latin name is given the first time a plant is mentioned, but is only repeated when it is necessary to fix the species carefully. The abbreviation 'sp.' (singular) or 'spp.' (plural) indicates one or more species of a genus without actually naming the species—either because it is not known for certain, or because it is not necessary to give more detailed nomenclature.

FLORA

The known flora of Albania includes about 2,200 species of seed-bearing plants. Of these some 320 are known only from the Balkan

peninsula and over 50 have been found only in Albania. The predominant families are, in descending order of number of species per family: the daisy family (Compositae), pea family (Leguminosae), grass family (Gramineae), pink family (Caryophyllaceae), dead-nettle family (Labiatae), crucifer or mustard family (Cruciferae), umbellifer or parsley family (Umbelliferae), figwort family (Scrophulariaceae), rose family (Rosaceae), buttercup family (Ranunculaceae), and lily family (Liliaceae), every one with more than 50 species. It is significant that 13 species of the pine family (Pinaceae) have been recorded.

The number of species of limited distribution ('endemic' to a stated area) is not relatively high, but includes exceptionally interesting plants. Thus some of the species found in, and endemic to, Albania or to the Balkan peninsula represent survivals from Tertiary times. Examples are a five-needled pine (*Pinus peuce*), a yam (*Dioscorea balcanica*), a member of the olive and ash family (*Forsythia europaea*), one of the few European gesneriads (*Ramondia serbica*), and a figwort (*Wulfenia baldaccii*). These and other plants found a refuge in the western parts of the Balkan peninsula during the Ice Age.

The Albanian flora naturally shows connexions with those of Dalmatia, Macedonia, and Greece. The flora of the coast and the lower lands in the western parts is essentially similar to that of the Dalmatian coastlands and essentially Mediterranean in character. In common with Macedonia, Albania has a number of rare species, some of which are mentioned above (e.g. *Pinus peuce* and *Forsythia europaea*), and there is no marked difference between eastern Albania and western Macedonia. The northern Greek (especially Epirot) flora extends northwards into southern Albania. The high mountain flora in the northern Albanian mountains is essentially Central European in composition or in affinities and a large proportion of it has migrated from the Alps. That of the southern mountains, largely developed *in situ*, is more or less Greek, many of the species being endemic and often related to species of the same genus growing at lower altitudes. There are, of course, exceptions to these generalizations, but their validity is shown by the figures (accurate for data available to 1928 and only slightly modifiable through more recent collections) for the occurrence in Albania of plants with their centre of distribution in the European Alps. Of the 108 Alpine species known from Albania all are recorded from the northern mountains, but only 16 from mountains south of the latitude of Tirana.

PLANT COMMUNITIES

The principal plant communities composing Albanian vegetation are:

- I. Coastal communities: submerged, sand-stretches and sand-dunes, salt-marshes, coastal rocks.
- II. Aquatic and marsh communities of fresh water.
- III. Herbaceous communities: meadows, stony and rocky ground, high mountain mats, &c.
- IV. Brushwood communities: *maquis* (*macchie*), *shiblyak*, high-mountain brushwoods.
- V. Forests:
 1. Evergreen forests: Aleppo pine, black pine, Greek fir, mountain conifers.
 2. Deciduous forests: oak, mixed elements, beech, river and marsh woods.

This scheme is essentially one of convenience; it suggests the lines of development through which natural vegetation passes from earlier stages to a climax, though this succession may cease before a forest stage is reached.

I. *Coastal Communities*

The *submerged* vegetation off the Albanian coast has received little attention. From casual observations and from published accounts of the marine flora for other parts of the Adriatic Sea it would appear probable that the more rocky southern parts of the Albanian coast are the richest in seaweeds (Algae) and that these differ in proportion to the depth of water, the length of exposure to air in the upper zones, the amount of wave action, and the nature of the substratum. It is probable that encrusting and low, much-branched, calcareous Algae are common where limestone rocks are immediately covered by the sea. There is no doubt that off shore, where the water is muddy or composed of a mixture of sand and mud, there are extensive submerged 'meadows' of 'sea-grasses'. These are seed-bearing plants, not seaweeds in the botanical sense. The most important off the Albanian coast are the eel-grasses (*Zostera marina* and *Z. nana*) on the muddy and sandy sea-bottom at from 3 to 25 feet depth and the broad sea-grass (*Posidonia oceanica*) at still greater depths. These plants have many peculiarities in structure and function fitting them for life on the sea-bottom and especially such as enable flowers to be pollinated and seeds to be set whilst submerged.



70. Beech copse, devastated by grazing, in the upper Mat valley near Martanesh



71. Oaks on *M. i* Tomorrit. In background, beyond Osum valley, *M. i* Zhitomit and *M. e* Shpiragrit are faintly visible



72. *Devastated oak forest at confluence of L. i Bençës and the Vjosë.
Tepelenë in middle distance*



73. *Olive trees. Plain of Tirana below and beyond*

'Sea-meadows' are probably most extensive off the northern and central parts of the Albanian coast.

Sand-stretches and Sand-dunes occur in various places on the coast, though nowhere are they of great extent or breadth. They are characteristically developed in the bay of Durazzo and north and south of Valona. Where the sand is mobile and is piled up into dunes by winds blowing on shore, the marram-grass (*Ammophila arenaria* subsp. *australis*) is the commonest species and the one most effective in helping to fix the dunes. Other common plants include the sea holly (*Eryngium maritimum*), clustered club-rush (*Scirpus holoschoenus* var. *romanus*), sea convulvulus (*Calystegia soldanella*), medicks (*Medicago* spp.), and some annual grasses, composites, and other plants. The sand-dunes are composed of loose, well-drained, fine-particled sand, and are not saline like the salt-marshes. Their surfaces, however, very easily dry out, and many of the plants are adapted for resisting or avoiding summer drought. As soon as marram-grass and other early colonizers have stabilized the surface and added humus from the decay of their stems, leaves, and roots, a host of inland plants, both herbs and shrubs, can establish themselves. Amongst the plants of this second stage are alkanet (*Alkanna tinctoria*) and the sea amaryllid (*Pancratium maritimum*), with very large bulbs and handsome white flowers. Very soon, too, low shrubs of the rock-rose genus (*Cistus*) and a joint-fir (*Ephedra distachya*) appear, and in combination with numerous annual and perennial herbs help to develop a 'heath' type or brushwood community which tends to grow more and more closely, and finally, if not interfered with, to pass over into forest.

Salt-marshes. Much of the northern and central Albanian coast is low-lying and the slopes immediately inland are very gradual. Though regular tides are not well marked in the southern Adriatic, storms not infrequently carry salt water some distance inland and help to flood low land and depressions, when silt accumulates as fine mud. There are considerable areas of almost enclosed flats flooded in winter with brackish to saline water through narrow connexions with the sea, which dry out, at least partially, in the summer. These areas often accumulate the debris of sea-grasses thrown up by the waves or left by retreating water, and being impregnated with salt, and at least occasionally flooded with salt water, develop a vegetation of plants (halophytes), specially adapted to withstand high salinity in the soil and soil-water. These include, in the flooded parts, species of glasswort (*Salicornia* spp.), the grass *Aeluropus litoralis*, sea

lavenders (*Statice* spp.), and marsh sand-spurrey (*Spergularia salina*), all found, for example, near Durazzo. Other members of the goose-foot family, such as *Arthrocnemum macrostachyum* and *Halocnemum strobilaceum*, have been recorded near Valona. Above the lowest areas occur a sea rush (*Juncus acutus*), golden samphire (*Inula crithmoides*), shrubby glasswort (*Salicornia fruticosa*), sea purslane (*Obione portulacoides*), and other more or less halophytic species. This vegetation becomes gradually mixed, on the inland side, with normal land species. Tamarisks (*Tamarix* spp.) form a transition to inland scrub or forest, as, for example, over the often-flooded area inland of Karavasta and Tërbuf marshes south of the Shkumbî river.

Coastal rocks occur, especially from Valona southwards, where the coast is steeper as well as more rocky than farther north. They are often clothed with evergreen brushwoods (*maquis*) which are sometimes well developed, sometimes impoverished. In other places the vegetation is of a very open type of herbaceous rock plants, many of which are also found inland. Where sea spray is commonly thrown up by waves and wind a few species limited to the coast are found on the rocks. Special mention should be made of samphire (*Crithmum maritimum*) and sea-lavenders. Low shrubs of a joint-fir (*Ephedra campylopoda*) and capers (*Capparis sicula*) are also frequent.

II. Aquatic and Marsh Communities of Fresh Water

In the coastal plain rivers are often bordered by marshes, and there are also a considerable number of lakes. The south-eastern part of Lake Scutari and the south-western portions of lakes Prespa and Ochrida also lie within Albania, as does also the whole of Lake Maliq. Unfortunately there have been few detailed studies of the aquatic and marsh vegetation of Albania.

Lake Scutari has little vegetation except near the river mouths. Its waters are deficient in nitrogenous and phosphatic salts and have a poor *plankton*, while its bottom is rich in lime but poor in organic matter. Amongst the aquatic plants are white water lily (*Nymphaea alba*), yellow water lily (*Nuphar luteum*), water chestnut (*Trapa natans*), pondweeds (*Potamogeton* spp.), hornwort (*Ceratophyllum demersum*), and water milfoil (*Myriophyllum verticillatum*). Lake Prespa has a much richer flora. On the lower shores various marsh communities occur with the reed grass (*Phragmites communis*) frequently dominant but often associated with, or more or less replaced by, a large number of marsh herbs mostly widely ranging. In the submerged or floating vegetation the following, amongst others, are

important: stoneworts (*Chara* spp.), pondweeds, bladderwort (*Utricularia vulgaris*), water milfoils, hornwort, water lilies, frogbit (*Hydrocharis morsus-ranae*), water fern (*Salvinia natans*), duckweeds (*Lemna* spp.), and fringed water lily (*Limnanthemum peltatum*). Lake Ochrida has a varied but somewhat poorer aquatic and marsh vegetation. Around its marshy margins grow reed grass and bulrush (*Scirpus lacustris*) associated with reed-maces (*Typha* spp.), branched bur-reed (*Sparganium ramosum*), water mint (*Mentha aquatica*), and bog-bean (*Menyanthes trifoliata*). The submerged or floating aquatic plants include pondweeds, hornworts, water-chestnut, water-fern, bladderwort, yellow water lily, water milfoil, water-bistort (*Polygonum amphibium*), horned pondweeds (*Zannichellia palustris*), and tape-grass (*Vallisneria spiralis*). The stoneworts are exceedingly well developed in Lake Ochrida and grow on the bottom from depths of from 3 to 50 feet. No fewer than fourteen species of *Chara* and *Nitella* have been recorded from this lake and from waters in its neighbourhood. Round much of its shore Lake Maliq has a girdle up to 100 yards wide of reed grass which at times passes into marsh woodland, with willows (*Salix* spp.) and poplars (*Populus* spp.). The considerable fluctuations of the water-level aid the wind in tearing masses of reed-grass from the swamp belt, and the detached portions may float from shore to shore. Such reed-grass islets are similar to those known in the Danube delta as *plav* (Alb. stoma).

In the coastal plain there are considerable freshwater marshes and reed-swamps. These have not, so far as is known, been studied in any detail. Much of this waterlogged, periodically deep-flooded, land is covered with marsh woodland which is described later. There are also areas of reed-swamp dominated by tall-growing reed-grasses (especially *Phragmites communis* and *Arundo donax*), sometimes with patches or zones of bulrush (*Scirpus*) and reed-maces (*Typha* spp.). Here and there in the marshy areas there are sheets of open water with an aquatic vegetation including water lilies and frogbit (*Hydrocharis morsus-ranae*).

III. Herbaceous Communities

Meadows comparable with those of central and western Europe, with continuous turf and a humus layer of matted dead plant-remains, are rare in Albania and are mainly limited to the mountains. They occur in the oak and mixed forest zones, especially in small hollows which may be flooded in the winter but dry out in the summer, though much of their vegetation remains summer-green.

In the beech zone they are probably less frequent and usually follow the destruction of the trees. Though the meadows contain numerous grasses (species of *Poa*, *Festuca*, *Dactylis*, *Anthoxanthum*, *Lolium*, *Cynosurus*, and *Bromus*), the flora consists very largely of other herbs, including some with bulbs, such as grape-hyacinths (*Muscari* spp.), some with corms, such as crocuses (*Crocus* spp.) and autumn crocuses (*Colchicum* spp.), and with tubers, such as an anemone (*Anemone apennina*) and ground orchids (*Orchis* spp.). Perennial herbs dying down to the level of the ground with the oncoming of winter are very numerous and there are also some annuals. There are also drier meadows with a different flora, and considerable areas sometimes described as 'steppe-meadows'. Their vegetation consists of a mixture of herbs and other grasses, including many annuals, of rather open arrangement and thus not forming a closed turf, mostly dying down in summer, and forming no definite humus-layer. These steppe-meadows occur in the Mediterranean domain and there appears to be no sharp transition between them and open communities on rocky and stony ground where the substratum is still drier and less suitable for plant growth. Most, if not all, 'steppe-meadows' are of secondary origin and have followed the destruction of brushwoods or forests, especially on serpentine. Grasses of the kind characteristic of the south-east European steppes dominate these communities, and include *Andropogon ischaemum*, *Chrysopogon gryllus*, and *Stipa capillata*. A plantain (*Plantago carinata*) is also very frequent.

Herbaceous or dominantly herbaceous communities on stony and rocky ground usually represent the final stage of impoverishment due to excessive exploitation by man and his flocks and herds. An exception is the open vegetation found on some steep-rock faces where trees and shrubs cannot establish themselves. Every stage is to be found from forest through high brushwoods and low brushwoods to open herbaceous communities with no or only a few poor scattered shrubs and subshrubs. The composition and structure of such brushwoods is considered below. In the driest herbaceous communities there occur feather-grass (*Stipa pulcherrima*), crucifers (as species of *Alysum*, *Aethionema*, and *Cardamine*), labiates (as species of *Salvia*, *Sideritis*, *Marrubium*, *Stachys*, *Teucrium*, and *Thymus*), bulbous plants such as grape-hyacinths, spurge (*Euphorbia* spp.), composites (as species of *Artemisia* and *Achillea*), and numerous other plants. The flora may be rich even if the vegetation be poor. In some districts, mainly on limestones, considerable surfaces are covered by the common sage (*Salvia officinalis*) forming a sub-shrubby brushwood rather

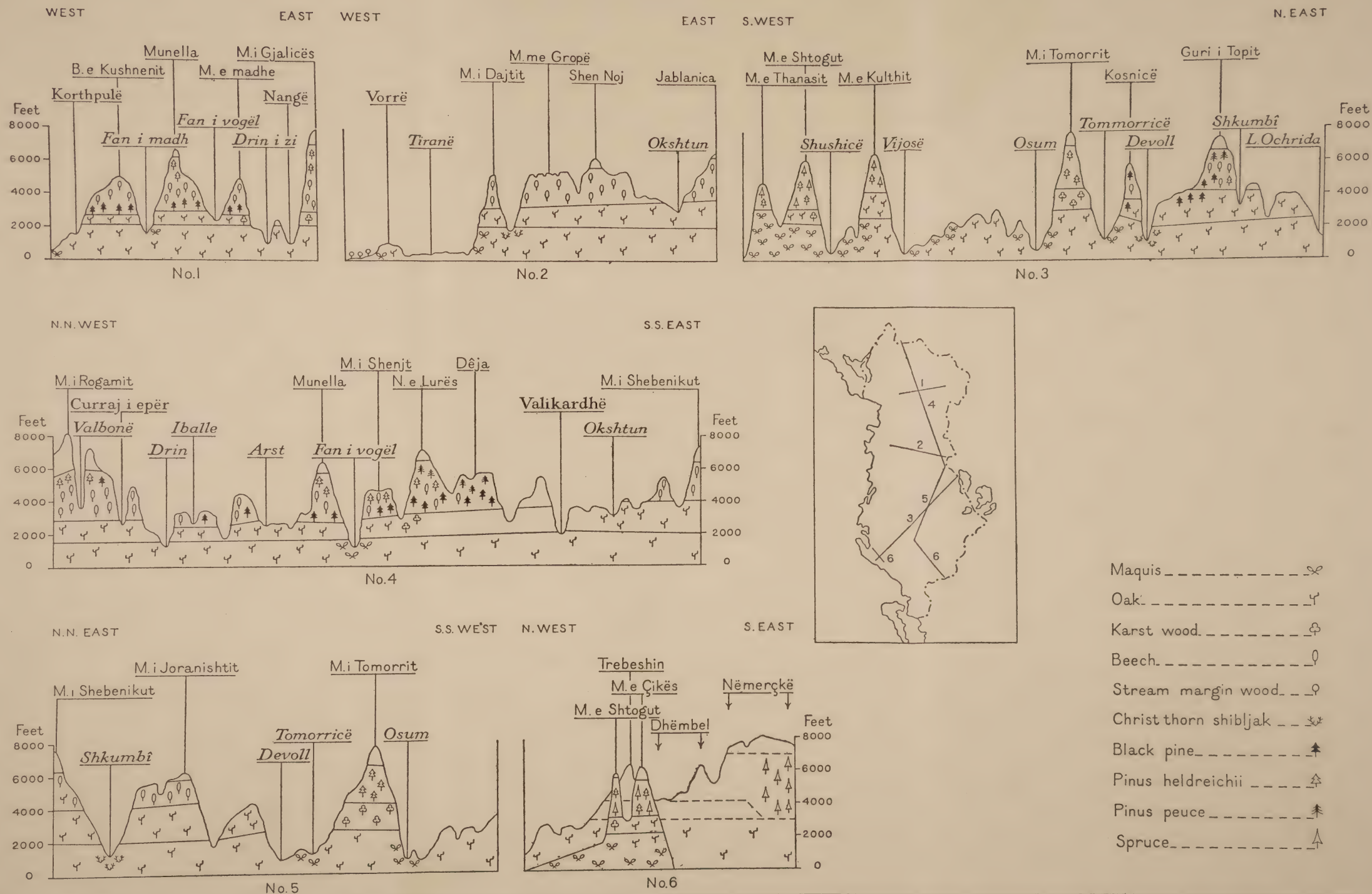


FIG. 23. Sections showing heights of plant-zones

than a herbaceous community, but associated with the sage are numerous herbs.

Very steep, sometimes vertical, rocky slopes are frequently of limestone and have an open vegetation largely composed of special species, often of limited distribution. Thus there are species of saxifrage (*Saxifraga*) and of house-leek (*Sempervivum*), pink (*Dianthus*), catchfly (*Silene*), whitlow-grass (*Draba*), thyme (*Thymus*), hawkweed

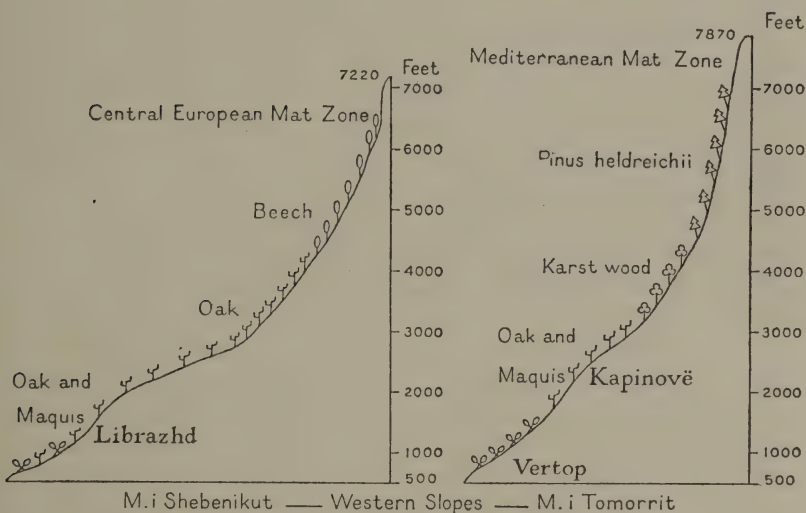


FIG. 24. Heights of plant-zones

(*Hieracium*), and many others. Special mention must be made of members of a genus of the bell-flower family, known as *Hedraeanthus*, and of a plant known as *Ramondia serbica*. This last is a member of a family which is almost entirely tropical and subtropical, and it must be considered a relict from Tertiary times.

On the high mountains, above the upper forest limit, there are high mountain 'mat' communities of a great variety of herbs, half-shrubs, and low shrubs. These are more compact and produce deeper layers of humus in the northern than in the southern mountains. In them one finds grasses (species of *Poa*, *Anthoxanthum*, *Sesleria*, *Phleum*, &c.), sedges (*Carex* spp.), pinks (*Dianthus* spp.), buttercups (*Ranunculus* spp.), bell-flowers (*Campanula* spp.), forget-me-nots (*Myosotis* spp.), hawkweeds (*Hieracium* spp.), gentians (*Gentiana*

spp.), and numerous other plants. Many of those in the northern mountains are common also in the Alps of central Europe.

Near the mountain-tops there are small valleys or depressions where the snow lies well into the summer, and which have a carpet of mosses and dwarf sub-shrubs and herbs in which a thyme (*Thymus albanus*) and mat grass (*Nardus stricta*) are characteristic.

On damp mountain slopes, often saturated with water from melting snow in the summer, the vegetation may be open or more or less matted, and consists of low-growing half-shrubs and herbs, most of the latter being perennial and sometimes forming loose to compact cushions. The flora is varied, the components including crucifers (species of *Thlaspi*, *Draba*, *Arabis*, and *Malcomia*), members of the pink family (as species of *Cerastium*, *Minuartia*, *Arenaria*, and other genera), mountain buttercups (*Ranunculus montanus* and others), saxifrages (*Saxifraga* spp.), alpine toadflax (*Linaria alpina*), thymes (*Thymus* spp.), and squinancy worts (*Asperula* spp.), with some grasses, sedges, and rushes.

In all the high mountain communities the conditions are hard for plant-life. The growing-season is short, and even in summer there are great daily fluctuations in temperature. Hence growth is slow and the aerial parts are low, while flowering and seed-setting are accomplished quickly. Flowers, however, are often brilliantly coloured. The influence of soil is often marked, the flora and vegetation being much richer on limestone than on serpentine, and where such rocks outcrop near together differences of plant-cover are abrupt.

IV. Brushwoods

Maquis are brushwoods, mostly evergreen, of the Mediterranean region. The general composition of Albanian *maquis* is said to be very similar wherever it occurs, though some differences are noted below. The principal shrubs are: strawberry tree (*Arbutus unedo*), tree heath (*Erica arborea*), Mediterranean juniper (*Juniperus oxycedrus*), myrtle (*Myrtus communis*), holm-oak (*Quercus ilex*), lentisk (*Pistacia lentiscus*), hairy rock-rose (*Cistus villosus*), a leguminous switch-plant (*Spartium junceum*), pyracantha (*Pyracantha coccinea*), whorled heath (*Erica verticillata*), and a member of the olive family known as *Phillyrea media*. All these are evergreen. There are, however, some deciduous shrubs, including the Judas tree (*Cercis siliquastrum*), flowering ash (*Fraxinus ornus*), hairy oak (*Quercus lanuginosa*), and turpentine tree (*Pistacia terebinthus*). Low shrubby plants are represented by butcher's broom (*Ruscus aculeatus*), rock-

roses (*Cistus* spp.), roses, and brambles (*Rubus* spp.). *Smilax* (*Smilax aspera*), a very prickly plant, represents the woody climbers or lianes, and a clematis (*Clematis viticella*) also occurs here and there. In the more open places a rich herbaceous flora develops, but usually this is most in evidence in impoverished stages of the brushwoods.

In Albania there are considerable areas of well-developed *maquis* which have been less exploited than in many other Mediterranean countries, for better fuel and timber can be obtained from the oak-woods. It is true, however, that recently the roots of the tree-heath have been dug up and exported for the manufacture of briar pipes, whilst in the past there has been considerable destruction of *maquis* in order to obtain arable and grazing lands, and this has led to what have been termed 'rocky heaths' which occur throughout both the lowland and hilly zones. Characteristic of them are low growths of tree-heath and rock-roses—remnants of *maquis*—and a varied flora of bulbous plants, grasses, and other herbs.

Full-grown *maquis*, especially when the shrubs are interlaced with prickly *Smilax*, may be almost impenetrable. Both the density and the detailed composition, however, differ according to circumstance. The strawberry tree does not grow near the extreme limit of *maquis*, and heaths then become dominant. Myrtle is by no means always present, and kermes oak (*Quercus coccifera*) is only found in southern Albania, where, however, it is sometimes abundant. The box (*Buxus sempervirens*) is recorded as growing only on serpentine and is rarely found in the *maquis*. In general the latter is richer in species and in growth-forms, and more indifferent to soil factors in the south than elsewhere, and ascends to considerable altitudes near the coast. Thus on the western side of the Çikë mountains south of Valona it is recorded from 3,000 feet. At 15 miles and farther from the coast the upper limits of *maquis* are generally between 2,300 and 1,300 feet.

Shiblyak (Turk. *çiblak*) is the name given to brushwoods dominated by deciduous shrubs. In Albania the commonest type is Christ-thorn (*Paliurus spinachristi*) brushwood, which is very abundant in many areas and particularly notable on the margins of swamp woodlands. Its thickets are sometimes so dense and so prickly (from the strong straight and curved spines on the closely branched shrubs) as to be impenetrable without mechanical aid. They may be almost pure Christ-thorn, or may include scattered shrubs of hairy oak, pyracantha, hawthorn (*Crataegus monogyna*), privet (*Ligustrum vulgare*), butcher's broom, roses, and other woody species. The field-layer of herbs varies with the density of the shrub-layer, being rich where

sufficient light can penetrate to the ground. Other deciduous brushwoods are of more local occurrence. Thus there are records of wig tree (*Cotinus coggygria*) and sumach (*Rhus coriaria*). Mention must also be made of the only European forsythia (*Forsythia europaea*) which occasionally forms almost pure communities in the north-east. These deciduous brushwoods have not all had a similar history. Some are probably stages in the natural succession to high forest, a few may represent the final type of vegetation that can develop under the present climatic conditions, others have replaced former forest and would in their turn be replaced by forest if nature were allowed to take its course. Generally speaking, the principal component shrubs demand light, and it is unlikely that they often represent merely undergrowth of destroyed forest. Most often they appear to be stages in a primary or secondary succession leading to forest.

There are, however, exceptions, and some deciduous brushwoods are simply forest from which the tall trees have been artificially removed. A great deal of deciduous oak-scrub probably comes under this category. In central Albania hazel brushwoods occur on *flysch*, marl, or limestone where springs outcrop. They produce a soil rich in humus. In examples near Dunicë and Llangë (3,600–4,000 ft.) the hazel brushwood (*Corylus avellana*) is mixed with bushes of sessile oak (*Quercus petraea*), oriental hornbeam (*Carpinus orientalis*), sycamore (*Acer pseudoplatanus*), beech (*Fagus silvatica*), dogwood (*Cornus sanguinea*), a lime (*Tilia platyphyllos*), and a bramble (*Rubus thyr-santhus*). The herbaceous layer is rich and includes bracken (*Pteridium aquilinum*), a woodland grass (*Melica uniflora*), scented hellebore (*Helleborus odoratus*), ground-orchids (*Cephalanthera rubra*, *Epipactis microphylla*), wood-sanicle (*Sanicula europaea*), wood-rush (*Luzula pilosa*), and many other plants.

High Mountain Brushwoods are rare apparently. Trees, of whatever species, forming the upper forest-limit are usually more or less dwarfed and widely spaced but do not form special communities. The true high mountain dwarf-pine (*Pinus mughus*) grows only in the North Albanian Alps, and there forms thickets at the limit of woody plant growth.

V. Forests

1. Evergreen

The evergreen forests of Albania are all coniferous and, conversely, all Albanian conifers are evergreen, since larch (*Larix*) is not native in the country. On the whole, coniferous trees occur where either



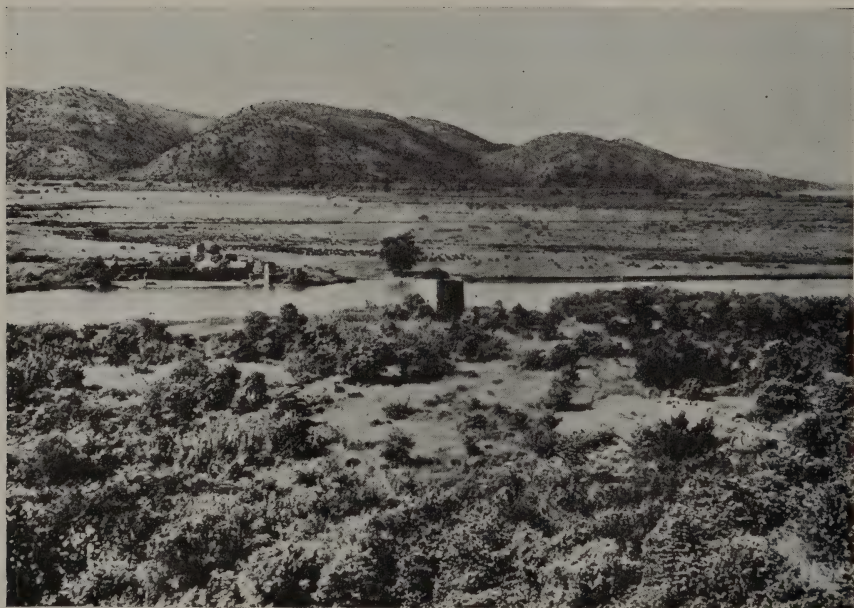
74. *Lowland forest on the banks of the Drin, north of Lesh*



75. *Woodland in lower Drin valley SW. of Lesh*



76. *Asphodel meadow and reeds on the west shore of Lake Ochrida*



77. *Evergreen scrub. View from Butrinto looking SSW. to the Vrinë plain and coast range*

climate or soil, or both, are unsuitable for broad-leaved deciduous trees.

Aleppo pine (*Pinus halepensis*) is limited to coastal and lowland areas, and since these are often too swampy for it the range is decidedly restricted. The Aleppo pine is frequently the only tree in coastal pinewoods, but stone or umbrella pines (*Pinus pinea*) are sometimes associated with it, most often if not always having been planted by man. More rarely, but especially on clay soils, broad-leaved deciduous trees may be found in association. For a conifer, the Aleppo pine has a light canopy, and when the trees are not growing too thickly the undergrowth is fairly dense and consists of *maquis* shrubs with a varied field layer of Mediterranean annual and perennial herbs. Lichens are often abundant on the trunks and branches. Little or no humus layer is formed at the soil surface.

Woods of black pine (*Pinus nigra*) are widely spread in the hills and mountains, usually between 1,600 and 5,000 feet, and especially on serpentine. Many of the black-pine woods have been felled, or destroyed by fire, and their place taken by brushwoods or dwarf-shrub growth. Though the black pines produce individually denser canopies than do Aleppo pines, the trees are usually so spaced that crowns do not interlock. There are exceptions to this rule, but generally sufficient light penetrates to allow of the development of a thick undergrowth of low shrubs or of shrubs and herbs. The black pine is dominant in these woods but is sometimes mixed with beech. Characteristic undergrowth species are flesh-coloured heath (*Erica carnea*), Mediterranean juniper, common juniper (*Juniperus communis*), roses, and brambles. There is often a fairly well-formed layer of humus on top of weathered serpentine.

The Greek fir (*Abies cephalonica*) occurs only in the southern mountains, where it forms the main constituent of many woods. Sometimes these are dense and have little other vegetation, but elsewhere there are pines, yew trees (*Taxus baccata*), and box mixed with the firs.

The other coniferous woods of Albania are limited to the higher mountains, and their ranges are determined more by climate than by soil. The white-barked pine (*Pinus leucodermis*) occurs from about 3,300 feet up to the tree limit, reaching its highest altitude on Tomor at 7,500 feet. It apparently prefers limestone, but occurs also on serpentine and schists. Deep humus is frequently formed in its woods. In the north the white-barked pine forms extensive forests either pure or with scattered pines of other species (*Pinus nigra* and

P. peuce) or a few beeches. On some of the North Albanian Alps its woods form a zone above the beech woods. In the centre and south it occurs scattered in woods dominated by other trees. Though the trees are often well spaced, the shrubby undergrowth is not dense, but a long list of herbs is recorded from woods of white-barked pine.

The five-needled peuke-pine (*Pinus peuce*) is endemic to the Balkan peninsula and is most nearly related to the Himalayan pine (*P. excelsa*). In Albania it occurs frequently, though not invariably, on serpentine. Single specimens appear in beech woods at about 4,500 feet, but woods dominated by it only occur from 1,000 feet higher up to the tree limit at or below 7,000 feet. The woods are usually rather open and broken by rocks and irregularities in the surface, which has a widely spaced vegetation of low shrubs, half-shrubs, and herbs. In unfavourable circumstances, and near the tree limit, the peuke-pine itself becomes dwarfed and contorted and may even form a brushwood girdle.

The spruce (*Picea abies*) is limited to a few high-lying places in the North Albanian Alps and the M. i Gjalicës, and is unimportant.

2. *Deciduous*

Oakwoods are the most important of all forests, both from the areas they cover, and would cover if not destroyed, and from their economic value. Actually, since they occur in the lowlands and such hill-districts as are easy of access, they have been much exploited for timber, fuel, and animal fodder. Large areas of former and potential oakwoods are, therefore, represented by open, scattered, and often low brushwood, but there are still quite extensive oak forests which range from near sea-level up to the beech-zone, though with changes in the dominant species of oak. The principal tree in low-lying woods is the hairy oak (*Quercus lanuginosa*), and the Turkey oak (*Q. cerris*) is common. Other associated trees are flowering ash, Tartary maple (*Acer tataricum*), and oriental hornbeam (*Carpinus orientalis*). In the shrub-layer occur pyracantha, privet (*Ligustrum vulgare*), Mediterranean juniper, hairy rock-rose, hawthorn, roses, spindle-tree (*Euonymus europaeus*), dogwood (*Cornus sanguinea*), bladder-senna (*Colutea arborescens*), and a wild pear (*Pyrus amygdaliformis*). The herbaceous layer is rich in species, especially such as flower in the spring, and includes scented hellebore (*Helleborus odorus*), Dalmatian crocus (*Crocus dalmaticus*), a squill (*Scilla bifolia*), violets (*Viola* spp.), primrose (*Primula vulgaris*), a star of Bethlehem (*Ornithogalum exscapum*), snowflake (*Leucojum aestivum*), lesser celan-

dine (*Ranunculus ficaria*), wood-rushes (*Luzula* spp.), some woodland grasses, and numerous other species. Autumn-flowering plants include another squill (*Scilla autumnalis*), crocuses (*Crocus longiflorus* and *C. cancellatus*), and an autumn crocus (*Colchicum kochii*).

Higher up the woods become more extensive and other species of oak are the dominant trees. The Turkey oak is still common but is mixed with the clustered oak (*Q. conferta*), the Macedonian oak (*Q. macedonica*), and the sessile oak (*Q. petraea*), relative numbers varying from place to place. The shrub-layer is rather mixed and consists of hawthorn, tree-heath, species of broom (*Cytisus* spp.), and dyer's-weed (*Genista tinctoria*). A thin layer of fallen leaves covers the ground surface and there is some formation of humus. The herbaceous layer tends to be more closed than at lower altitudes, and consists of a large number of species. At still higher altitudes the oakwoods become more and more dominated by sessile oak, with an increasing variety and density of the shrub layer. Sessile oaks flourish on most types of soil, but least so on those derived from sandstones, and grow especially in the uppermost parts of what is called 'the dry oakwood zone'. They often flourish on serpentine and then have a thick undergrowth of box and other shrubs, with alpine-rose (*Rosa alpina*) and *Epimedium alpinum*, a well-known plant of the barberry family.

Mixed woods may replace oakwoods where there is more moisture and higher humidity, as, for example, in narrow valleys with streams. Mixed broad-leaved, summer-green, winter-bare woods are of several kinds. At the lower levels they may consist principally of oriental hornbeam, either as a small tree or as a shrub with admixture of common hornbeam, maple (*Acer campestre*), flowering ash, and hairy oak. Other members of the shrub layer include dogwood (*Cornus sanguinea*) and hawthorn, whilst the rich herbaceous layer has bracken (*Pteridium aquilinum*), scented hellebore, ferns (*Polystichum setigerum*, *Phyllitis scolopendrium*), wood-sanicle (*Sanicula europaea*), various wood-grasses and sedges, and many other plants. At rather higher altitudes the mixed woods may be dominated by common hornbeam (*Carpinus betulus*) mixed with hairy oak, blunt-leaved maple (*Acer obtusatum*), flowering ash, and a lime (*Tilia platyphyllos*). The shrub layer has oriental hornbeam, flowering ash, cornel cherry (*Cornus mas*), and service tree (*Pyrus torminalis*). The most frequent type, however, is a true mixed woodland, sometimes referred to as 'karst wood', with a great variety of trees and bushes, usually low, the exact composition varying often within very short distances. The

tree-layer may include any of the following species: oriental hornbeam, common hornbeam, elm (*Ulmus campestris*), beech, limes (*Tilia argentea*, *T. platyphyllos*), maples (*Acer hyrcanum*, *A. obtusatum*, *A. campestre*, *A. monspessulanum*), oak (*Quercus petraea*, *Q. cerris*, *Q. conferta*, *Q. macedonica*), hop hornbeam (*Ostrya carpinifolia*), service-tree, and flowering ash. A great variety of shrubs have been recorded, including hazel, hawthorn, box, buckthorns (*Rhamnus* spp.), and dogwood. The list of herbs in the field-layer is also a very long one, and climbing plants are frequent.

Plantations of vallon oak (*Quercus aegilops*) are tended and preserved in the south for the collection of acorn-cups as a tanning material. It is uncertain how far these woods are native. Plantations of the sweet or Spanish chestnut (*Castanea sativa*) are more widely spread. They are often planted to follow destroyed oakwoods, and may not be native in Albania except in the north-east, at the margin of its large Macedonian range, where chestnut woods occur with flesh-coloured heath (*Erica carnea*) as undergrowth. The common cypress (*Cupressus sempervirens*) is another tree which is often planted in gardens, in cemeteries, and on waysides, and from its erect, spire-like growth adds a characteristic touch to the landscape in the lowlands and foothills. Orchards are not well developed in Albania, and even olive plantations and vineyards are often much neglected, though olive cultivation is of importance locally, and in the south-west especially olive-groves are conspicuous.

Beechwoods, very similar to those of central Europe, lie above the oakwoods and in many places have been relatively little affected by man's activities. They occur at altitudes where the steep gradients and rocky outcrops make ploughing difficult. Their exploitation is difficult without modern tools, and the cloud-belt conditions under which they flourish reduce risk of damage by fire. Actual destruction is greatest at their upper limits. Their lower limit is from 3,000 feet in the north to 4,200 feet in the south. The upper limits average about 6,000 feet, occasionally reaching 6,600 feet or more, but may be lowered deliberately in order to increase summer pasturage. All the higher mountains, from the North Albanian Alps to about the southern end of Lake Ochrida, are covered with, or girdled by, beechwoods. Farther south, beech, although present, is more patchy, and more limited to shaded slopes. Few other trees are associates of the beech. There are often scattered individuals of the blunt-leaved maple near the lower limit, but the white fir (*Abies alba*) is the most regular and important, especially in the upper parts of the



78. *Valona* salt marshes and the halophytes characteristic of them



79. Pollarded and ringed oaks: coast plain S. of Mat



80. *Giant heather, near Patok*



81. *Mediterranean scrub: Saseno Island*

beechwood zone. Very few shrubs appear in the mature parts of the beechwoods, except here and there a few low mezereon bushes (*Daphne mezereum*). There is usually a good depth of leaf mould on the surface of the ground, and the herb layer is often poorly developed. Where the substratum is limestone and there is sufficient moisture, fine tall herbs like columbine (*Aquilegia vulgaris*), crane's bill (*Geranium reflexum*), and coral roots (*Dentaria enneaphyllos* and *D. bulbifera*) occur, together with lower-growing herbs such as wood-ruff (*Asperula odorata*), wood-violet (*Viola silvestris*), a bedstraw (*Galium rotundifolium*), and a corydalis (*Corydalis cava*, var.). More rarely wood-sanicle, wood-sorrel (*Oxalis acetosella*), and woodland grasses are found. Mosses and lichens grow on the trunks and branches of the trees. Except where large breaks have been caused by high winds, there is a complete mixture of trees of different ages, indicative of the primitive nature of Albanian beechwoods.

River-bank and Marsh Woods are a prominent feature in the Albanian lowlands. Their distribution depends on the presence of abundant soil-moisture, not on climate. They consist of trees and shrubs shedding their leaves every autumn, and mostly representing widely distributed European species. A typical river-bank community consists of common ash (*Fraxinus excelsior*), common oak (*Quercus robur*), alder (*Alnus glutinosa*), white willow (*Salix alba*) and white poplar (*Populus alba*), a shrubby undergrowth of dogwood, hawthorn, Tartary maple (*Acer tataricum*), and brambles, with climbing honeysuckle (*Lonicera caprifolium*), black bryony (*Tamus communis*), and ivy. There is no formation of humus on the ground, and the surface is bare mud. Damp heat favours the rapid decay of dead plant-parts, while any that remain are swept away by winter floods. Herbaceous plants are represented by a certain number of marsh species. Sometimes marsh woods and brushwoods are composed entirely of willows (*Salix purpurea*, *S. incana*, and other species) and poplars (*Populus alba* and *P. nigra*). Planes (*Platanus orientalis*), sometimes of considerable size, and tamarisks (*Tamarix parviflora*) are also common where the substratum is wet. There are various transitions between river-bank or marsh woods and oak-woods. These depend for their occurrence on the height of the water-table and the amount of winter flooding. Of low shrubs often associated with rivers and streams in the Mediterranean domain, mention should be made of chaste tree (*Vitex agnus-castus*) and oleander (*Nerium oleander*).

PASSABILITY AND COVER IN WOODY COMMUNITIES

Community	1. Density	2. Height	3. Diameter of larger trunks	4. Undergrowth (in forest)	5. Ceiling (canopy)
<i>Maquis</i>	Very close	15 to 20 ft.	6 in. to 1 ft.	..	Continuous, evergreen.
<i>Shiblyak</i>	Very close	6 to 12 ft.	A few inches	..	Often continuous but low, deciduous.
Aleppo pine	Usually open	40 to 50 ft.	2 ft.	Often thick and closed	Light and often broken, evergreen.
Black pine	Usually open	40 to 50 ft.	2 ft.	Often thick and closed	Discontinuous, but compact under individual trees, evergreen.
Greek fir	Close to very close	50 ft.	1 to 2 ft.	Often little	Continuous, evergreen.
White barked pine	Usually open	20 to 40 ft.	1 to 2 ft.	Usually not thick and not closed	Discontinuous, evergreen.
Peuke pine	Rather open	30 to 50 ft.	1 to 2 ft.	Low and usually not thick	Discontinuous, evergreen.
Lowland oakwoods	Often close	20 to 30 ft.	1 to 2 ft.	Often thick	More or less continuous, deciduous.
Dry oakwoods	Often close	30 to 50 ft.	2 to 3 ft.	Thick to open	More or less continuous, deciduous.
Mixed woods	Usually close	20 to 40 ft.	1 to 2 ft.	Thick to rather sparse	Often continuous, but of varied heights, deciduous.
Beechwoods	Close to very close	30 to 60 ft.	1 to 4 ft.	None or very sparse	Usually continuous, deciduous, except when firs or pines numerous.
River-bank and marsh woods	Often close	20 to 30 ft.	1 to 2 ft.	Often thick	Continuous to broken, deciduous.

The data in the above table refer to mature, well-developed communities. Interference by man may lead to modification of a character in any column, usually by reducing density, height, and diameter of larger trunks, but sometimes by increasing undergrowth.

CHAPTER VI

PUBLIC HEALTH

THERE is an almost complete lack of published information regarding health conditions and disease prevalence in Albania prior to her acquisition of independence. Nothing in the shape of an organized health service had existed, and outside a few of the larger towns western medicine was an unpractised art. Medieval conditions under Turkish rule left the country subject to all the common diseases but with no machinery to fight them. The country was reputed to be unhealthy and very malarious. Experience in the 1914-1918 war and subsequent inquiries have shown that that reputation was fully justified.

In the interval between the two world wars much progress was made, but efforts at reform were hampered at every turn. The population of Albania has lived in a state of ebullition, with few intermissions, since 1912; only a hardy race could have survived such trials.

In 1923 an application was made by the Albanian Government to the Health Committee of the League of Nations for assistance in preparing plans for the eradication or control of malaria. As a result Dr. W. E. Haigh carried out a survey of health conditions in that country with special reference to malaria. He spent two months in Albania in 1923 and five months in 1924. His report¹ contains a considerable amount of information about disease prevalence and about the economic and social conditions of the Albanian population. His second visit was made just after the 1924 revolution, in spite of which he was able to travel widely through the coastal belt and to visit all the chief centres of population.

A Public Health Service with a Director of Health had been created in 1922. Its budget of 450,000 fr. or. was used to finance state hospitals in the large towns, provincial medical officers, public vaccination, and a bacteriological laboratory, in Tirana. The provincial medical officers were intended to be full-time officials, but they were not debarred from private practice. There were municipal doctors in some towns, but for the most part these were of little public health value. The municipalities were very ill informed in

¹ Haigh, W. E., *Malaria in Albania*. (Mimeographed.) League of Nations Health Organization, Geneva, Feb. 1925. C.H. 272. (141 pp.)

public health matters and political considerations dictated the selection and appointment of personnel. There was no disinfecting apparatus in any town. The revolution of 1924 led to the suppression of the provincial medical officers, on grounds of economy, and the municipal doctors were the sole health officials outside the central department.

The Central Health Department was very ill informed of conditions prevailing in the country; when it did learn of epidemics no intervention was possible as it had neither an inspector nor sanitary personnel of any kind. The department had no contact with the Administration. Birth registration was incomplete, more so in the north than the south. A birth tax of 0.50 fr. or. was an effective deterrent to notification. Registration of deaths was more complete, but there were no standard death certificate forms, the posting of registers was always in arrears, and little or nothing was known as to the causes of death. The majority of villagers died without seeking a doctor. Indeed, more than half of the 2,540 villages in Albania had never been visited by a doctor. The inaccessibility of many of these villages and the general lack of communication facilities under the old regime were not without compensation; they doubtless hampered the spread of infectious disease. But recent upheavals have broken down disease barriers of that kind. Furthermore, the exchange of infections of many kinds, notably malaria, was facilitated by the descent of villagers to the plains for agriculture and pasturage, the migration of shepherds from malarious regions to the hills, the visits of the peasants to bazaar centres, mostly malarious, and the methods of recruitment for the army. The latter was done without medical supervision or health safeguards of any kind.

Haigh found the population to be living at a very low economic level. Undernourishment was everywhere apparent. The average family income was insufficient to procure an adequate diet for the children. Maize bread and a little cheese were the staple foods. Meat was rarely eaten; eggs, milk, and potatoes were still more expensive. Melons and grapes were the cheapest fruits, but their cost was prohibitive for the poor children of the towns. In general the amount of fat and animal protein was far too small.

Smallpox, typhus fever, and relapsing fever were not endemic. Typhoid fever occurred, but it was not often diagnosed. In 1924 it was certainly endemic in Gjinokastër. Dysentery seems to have been rare. Intestinal parasites were very common. The influenza of 1918-1919 spared no part of Albania. Mild outbreaks of scarlet fever, whooping-cough, and measles were of annual occurrence. Diphtheria

was rare. Tuberculosis was very common and very widespread. Noteworthy was the high incidence of adolescent pulmonary tuberculosis among the Moslem female population. The disease caused a heavy mortality notably in Gjinokastër, Scutari, and Krujë. Syphilis was very widespread in many rural areas, whole villages being affected. There were many cases of congenital syphilis, and acquired infections were by no means always venereal. Cancer appeared to be rare. Anthrax was the chief epizootic affecting man; it was widely spread in parts of the great plain. And, most important of all, nearly everywhere there was malaria. More than half the patients attending dispensaries and clinics suffered from malaria.

With the exception of malaria, more recent information adds but little to the description given by Haigh of the health conditions of this still backward country. The last published annual Epidemiological Report of the Health Organization of the League of Nations, for the year 1938 (Geneva, 1941), includes Albania in the list of countries of which the general death-rates and birth-rates are recorded. The general death-rates of Albania for 1938 and 1939 were 17.6 and 15.1 per thousand respectively. The corresponding birth-rates were 34.4 and 27.9 per thousand. The population according to the census of May 1930 was 1,003,000. These birth-rates are higher than any recorded by other European countries in those years, about double the rates for England and Wales. The general death-rate for 1938 was higher than that recorded in any other European country except Romania (19.2) and Spain (18.4). The 1939 general death-rate was comparable to the rates recorded in France (15.3), Austria (15.3), Estonia (15.0), and Yugoslavia (15.0) in that year.

The absence of information regarding the completeness of registration of vital occurrences, the causes of death, and the age and sex distribution of deaths in different parts of the country, makes further comment unnecessary. The infant mortality rates are not recorded. The rate of natural increase of population is certainly high.

McKinley, *A Geography of Disease*, 1935,¹ contains a table of information from Dr. Osman Jonuzi, Director-General of Health, Albania, in December 1933, in response to a questionnaire addressed him by the author. The questionnaire solicits information concerning most of the diseases of mankind, diseases of both tropical and temperate climates. About each disease the following questions are asked: whether the disease is present, whether its distribution is general

¹ McKinley, E. B. *A Geography of Disease*, 1935. The George Washington University Press, Washington, D.C., U.S.A.

or localized, the number of cases that occur annually, and whether it constitutes an important public health problem. The Director-General in his reply was unable to give the number of cases of any disease except malaria (250,000). For other diseases 'common', 'uncommon', or 'rare' are the epithets used to indicate prevalence. The diseases presenting important health problems were stated to be malaria, syphilis, tuberculosis, typhoid fever, scarlet fever, diphtheria, measles, epidemic meningitis, trachoma, rabies, and toxæmias of pregnancy. Of these rabies is uncommon, typhoid fever, scarlet fever, diphtheria, trachoma, epidemic meningitis, and toxæmias of pregnancy are rare, and malaria, syphilis, tuberculosis, and measles are common. Other common diseases are general malnutrition, influenza, the common cold, German measles, and dental caries. Diseases with a generalized distribution but which are rare include paratyphoid fever, bacillary dysentery, the pneumonias, and infection with round worms and tape worms. Rare diseases with a localized distribution include kala-azar, papatasi (sandfly) fever, undulant fever, amoebiasis, and pellagra. Leprosy, plague, typhus fever, and hookworm disease were said not to occur. Cardiovascular diseases are reported to be uncommon.

The Annual Epidemiological Report of the Health Organization of the League of Nations records the case incidence of a few of the communicable diseases in Albania:

	1935		1936		1937		1938	
	Cases	Deaths	Cases	Deaths	Cases	Deaths	Cases	Deaths
Smallpox . . .	1	..	0	..	0	..	..	..
Typhus fever . .	0	..	1	..	0	..	0	..
Typhoid and paratyphoid fever . .	167	6	284	18	431	34	337	13
Measles . . .	219	1	1,804	20	666	14	416	2
Scarlet fever . .	224	..	2	..	6	..	34	..
Diphtheria . . .	11	..	18	11	22	1	51	1
Cerebrospinal meningitis . . .	3	1	1	1	8	1	11	6
Encephalitis lethargica . .	0	..	0	..	1	..	3	..

Malaria

Of all endemic diseases in Albania, malaria is by far the most important and most widespread. It is endemic in all areas below 3,600 feet, hyperendemic in parts of the coastal belt and in the river valleys. Malariologists of the International Health Division of the Rockefeller Foundation worked for a number of years in Albania, and the results

of their research and investigations published in a number of medical and other scientific journals constitute a valuable addition to malaria literature and throw a flood of light on the epidemiology of malaria in Albania.

Albania firmly established her bad reputation for malaria in the 1914-1918 world war. The malaria that was widespread in the Austrian army was credited to strains of infection contracted by its soldiers in Albania. A severe outbreak among Italian marines resulted from infections contracted in Valona. It is reported that three-quarters of the Romanian prisoners of war interned in Albania died of malaria and that the repatriation of the remainder caused noteworthy changes in the epidemiology of malaria in Romania, by the introduction of new strains of parasite.

The Italian forces in the Greco-Italian war suffered severely from malaria in Albania. A special convalescent home was established in Pozzuoli in September 1939 for the treatment of soldiers suffering from malaria who had been invalided from Albania.

As is well known, malaria infection commonly causes enlargement of the spleen. The most valuable measure of malarial endemicity in any locality is the determination of the percentage of children with splenic enlargement and the extent of that enlargement. A recently published paper on 'Spleen Measurement in Malaria' by L. W. Hackett (1944)¹ uses observations made in Albania to demonstrate the value of the procedure. It contains the following table:

Data from winter surveys in seven Albanian towns arranged in ascending order of spleen rates, covering 28,228 examinations over a period of seven years (1932-1938). Percentage of children in each class

Town	Average enlarged spleen	Sp- Bl-	Sp- Bl+	Sp+ Bl-	Sp+ Bl+	Spleen index	Parasite index
Tirana .	1.45	73	2	22	3	24.9	4.7
Durazzo .	1.44	71	2	24	3	26.6	5.2
Scutari .	1.52	68	1	28	3	30.3	3.7
Berat .	1.78	47	2	43	8	50.5	10.2
Kavajë .	1.81	46	3	44	7	51.5	9.8
Elbasan .	1.72	45	2	44	8	52.2	10.7
Valona .	1.87	41	2	49	7	56.7	9.1

It will be noted that all these examinations were made in the winter, when malaria transmission is least active. Each child was examined for splenic enlargement, and its blood was examined for

¹ Hackett, L. W., 'Spleen Measurement in Malaria', *J. Nat. Malaria Soc.* Tallahassee, Fla., June 1944, vol. iii, No. 2, pp. 121-33.

malaria parasites. S+ signifies that the spleen was enlarged; Bl+ that malaria parasites were found in the blood. The size of the spleen is determined by the distance the enlarged organ extends from under the ribs downwards in the abdominal cavity. For this purpose the surface of the left side of the abdomen is divided by horizontal lines into four equal segments, two above and two below the umbilicus. A number 1 size spleen is one that is palpable when the child takes a deep breath. Larger spleens are numbered 2, 3, 4, or 5, according to the segment of the abdomen to which their lower margins extend. In the Albanian towns there is a relationship between the average size of the enlarged spleen and the spleen index or the percentage of children with splenic enlargement.

The table shows that malaria is hyperendemic in Valona, Elbasan, Kavajë, and Berat, and severely endemic in Scutari, Durazzo, and Tirana. The relatively favourable place in the table occupied by Durazzo and Tirana is probably explained by measures that have been taken to reduce mosquito-breeding in these places.

Further information concerning malaria in the town of Valona is contained in another table in Hackett's paper on spleen measurement. It records the results of the examination of 500 children in February 1937:

Valona

Parasites found	Spleen normal	Enlarged Spleen Nos.					Total
		1	2	3	4	5	
Negative . . .	246	89	78	17	4	1	435
<i>P. falciparum</i> . .	2	6	19	6	0	0	33
<i>P. vivax</i> . . .	9	3	7	6	0	0	21
<i>P. malariae</i> . .	1	2	6	2	0	0	11
	258	100	110	27	4	1	500
		242					

Spleen rate	48
Parasite rate	13
Average enlarged spleen . .	1.7
Average spleen	0.8

The three forms of malaria parasite, *Plasmodium falciparum*, *P. vivax*, and *P. malariae*, occur in Albania. *P. vivax*, the parasite of benign tertian malaria, predominates in the spring and early summer months. *P. falciparum*, which causes malignant tertian fever, is the most frequent in late summer and autumn. *P. malariae*, the parasite of quartan fever, is much less prevalent than the other two species;

it is relatively most in evidence in the winter months. Professor Eügling,¹ writing of experience with Austrian troops in Lesh and neighbourhood during the 1914-1918 war, describes the seasonal prevalence of the three types of infection. As all cases were sent away by sea, he was dealing only with primary infections; the usual difficulty of distinguishing primary cases from relapses was thus obviated. The first cases arising from *P. vivax* infections appeared in the middle of June; the incidence was at its maximum in August and subsided slowly. Primary cases may occur as late as November. Relapses occur all the year round. The earliest *P. malariae* infections were also noted in June; cases were rare until the end of August and most numerous in September. Primary cases may occur in December. Primary *P. falciparum* cases do not occur till mid-July; the incidence curve rises very rapidly to a sustained peak from the end of August to mid-September. After this the curve descends almost as rapidly as it rose. *P. falciparum* infections form from 60 to 80 per cent. of total infections during the season of heavy prevalence in the low-lying parts of Albania.

Similar observations have recently been recorded by Pelazzi² in Durazzo, except that according to him the season of maximum prevalence extended into October. From August to October *P. falciparum* infections were most numerous.

Very extensive studies of the anopheline fauna of Albania have been carried out by malariologists of the Rockefeller foundation.³ The species found are: *Anopheles algeriensis*, Theo.; *A. claviger*, Mg.; *A. hyrcanus*, Pall. (possibly subsp. *pseudopictus*, Grassi); *A. marterii* Senevet and Prunelle; *A. plumbeus*, Steph.; *A. superpictus*, Grassi; *A. maculipennis*, Mg. vars. *messeae*, Flin., *sacharovi*, Favr. (*elutus*), *subalpinus*, Hackett and Lewis, *typicus*.

As in Greek Macedonia intense malaria is associated with *A. maculipennis* var. *sacharovi*. In other places *A. superpictus* is the chief vector. These two anophelines are by far the most active transmitters of malaria in Albania. There are a few places, however, in

¹ Quoted by Haigh.

² Pelazzi, A., 'L'endemia malarica a Durazzo', *Riv. di Malariologia*, Sez. I, 1941, vol. xx, pp. 158-86.

³ Bates, M., 'Field Studies of the Anopheline Mosquitoes of Albania', *Proc. Ent. Soc. Wash.* 1941, vol. xliii, No. 3, pp. 37-58. An interesting description of the laboratory for mosquito research in Albania, set up by the Field Staff of the International Health Division of the Rockefeller Foundation, was presented by L. W. Hackett and M. Bates to the Third International Malaria Congress, Amsterdam, 1938. See *Acta Conventus Tertii de Malariae Morbis*, Amsterdam, 1938, pp. 113-23.

which neither species has been found, but which are malarious. This is notably the case in villages on the shores of Lake Maliq. Here *A. maculipennis* vars. *typicus*, *messeae*, and *subalpinus*, which are rarely important vectors of malaria, breed in immense numbers. In normal circumstances these mosquitoes rarely feed on man.

The varieties, or races, of *A. maculipennis* differ in their breeding-habits as well as in their propensities for biting man. Var. *subalpinus* occurs in all parts of Albania, but breeds only in marshes and ponds. Its larvae are never found in heavily shaded situations, in water of small surface area, in water with high nitrate content or appreciable salinity, or in water that is free from vegetation or that is subject to strong surface movements. The var. *messeae* has similar limitations, but unlike *subalpinus* it has a very limited geographical distribution in Albania, possibly because of the effect of the maximum summer heat on the adult mosquitoes. Var. *sacharovi* (*elutus*) is a marsh breeder, but its larvae are also found in quite small collections of water, pools, ditches, and the like. It can breed in water with a saline content of slightly more than 2 per cent. sodium chloride. With these exceptions the limitations of *subalpinus* breeding apply to *sacharovi*. The limitations to the geographical distribution of var. *sacharovi* in Albania are thought to be due to the effect of minimum winter temperature on the adult mosquitoes. Var. *typicus* is coextensive with *subalpinus* being found all over Albania; its breeding-places are limited in similar manner to those of the latter except that it may breed in water of small surface area.

A. superpictus breeds typically in small pools in gravelly river beds or in slowly moving water that is free from aquatic vegetation. Late in the season, when the adult *A. superpictus* population has reached its maximum, its eggs may sometimes be found in small pools and in rice-fields.

The larvae of *A. hyrcanus* and *A. algeriensis* are most abundant in a large marsh. Larvae of *A. plumbeus* are only found in tree-holes. *A. claviger* in summer breeds in shaded spring-fed pools; in the winter and early spring it has a wide variety of breeding-places. *A. marteri* breeds in pools in mountain streams, heavily shaded and containing cold, clear, fresh water.

The seasonal distribution of anopheline mosquitoes in the vicinity of Tirana was studied by Bates.¹ During 4 years weekly catches of

¹ Bates, M., 'The Seasonal Distribution of Anopheline Mosquitoes in the Vicinity of Tirana, Albania', *Riv. di Malariologia*, Sez. I, 1937, vol. xvi, No. 4, pp. 253-64.

mosquitoes were made in two stables. The *maculipennis* curve covered the same period each year. There is an increase in the spring; the peak of the curve is at the beginning of July, and thereafter a rapid fall. The curve is of single mode. The big summer increase of *maculipennis* concerns *typicus* only; *subalpinus* prevalence remains at a low and fairly constant level throughout the summer. Var. *sacharovi* appears early in July and declines in numbers gradually through August and September. The *A. superpictus* curve varies from year to year; the species breeds in pools in the river-bed, and the floods which come down the river are very irregular. A dry summer favours *A. superpictus*. There is a tendency for the *superpictus* curve of prevalence to show a low spring peak early in May and a much larger peak in August. The *A. claviger* curves show a small spring peak and a very abrupt and large rise in the first or second week of November. *A. plumbeus* and *A. algeriensis* were but rarely found in the Tirana catching stations.

The reasons why *A. maculipennis* var. *sacharovi* is so efficient a vector of malaria, whereas the other varieties of the species found in Albania are of so little importance in this regard, are concerned with their feeding-habits. Barber and Rice¹ in Greek Macedonia, where a similar state of affairs exists, showed that *sacharovi* is more apt than the other species to use dwelling-houses as daylight resting-places in the summer months, the ratio of densities in dwellings being 1:0.4 as compared with 1:1.4 in stables. Precipitin tests on the stomach contents of engorged mosquitoes showed that *sacharovi* has a much greater partiality for human blood: some 50 per cent. of the *sacharovi* contained human blood, but only 6 per cent. of *typicus* and *messeeae* contained it. Forty-two *sacharovi* were found harbouring malaria parasites for every single infected mosquito of the other varieties. In the laboratory all the varieties are susceptible to malaria infection. When exceptionally *messeeae* and *typicus* do function as vectors of malaria, as they appear to do in the villages on Lake Maliq, inaccessibility of domestic animals commonly explains their deviation to man for food.

Durazzo furnishes an example of a most successful large-scale antimalaria enterprise. A marsh some 15 square kilometres in extent adjacent to the port was a prolific breeding-ground for *sacharovi*. The action of the usual automatic tide-gate was reversed so as to

¹ Rice, J. B., and Barber, M. A., 'A Comparison of Certain Species of Anopheles with Respect to the Transmission of Malaria', *Amer. J. Hyg.*, July 1937, vol. xxvi, No. 1, pp. 162-74.

admit the sea at high tide instead of excluding it. A sea-water lagoon was formed. Within two years mosquito breeding over the whole area had ceased, while the profits from a fish concession, which had greatly benefited, more than covered the cost of the work.

In 1941 Prampolini¹ published an illustrated description of the extensive malarious regions still to be found along the coast of Albania, which the Italian Government, in collaboration with Albania, intended to reclaim one day. It was a grandiose programme. The technical hydraulic problems involved are discussed in his paper. A brief account was also given of the 'bonification' work that had already been carried out.

¹ Prampolini, N., 'La bonifiche dell' Albania', *Riv. di Malariologia*, Sez. I, July-Aug. 1941, vol. xx, No. 4, pp. 258-70.

CHAPTER VII

THE PEOPLE AND THE NORTHERN TRIBES

A. THE PEOPLE

THE census of 1930 recorded a total population of 1,003,097. Estimates, by addition of births and subtraction of deaths, were 1,037,856 for 1937 and 1,045,683 for 1938. The rate of increase from 1927 to 1932 inclusive (abnormally low in 1929) was 3·8 per thousand; from 1930 to 1938 it was 5·06. Both rates are lower than those for Bulgaria (13·8) and Romania (14·0) by reason of the high death rate, due mainly to infant mortality and to blood feuds.

The number of inhabitants is therefore about 98 per square mile, but Korçë and its district have 220 per square mile; Tirana and Scutari not much less; whereas districts in the Northern Highlands have less than 39 per square mile.

In 1937 out of a total of 1,037,856 there were 540,836 males and 497,020 females.

Table I shows the areas, populations, and densities of the various prefectures for 1938. The percentages professing Islam, the Catholic, or the Orthodox faith are also given, but they rest upon an estimate made in 1927 and are not reliable in detail. See also Fig. 25°, which gives a picture of population density based upon statistics for areas, and topographical evidence within those areas.

TABLE I. *Areas, Populations, and Religions within Prefectures*

Prefectures	Area		Population			Religions		
	Sq. km.	Sq. miles	Numbers	Density		Percentages		
				Sq. km.	Sq. m.	Moslem	Orthodox	Catholic
Berat .	3,932	1,518	160,497	40·8	105·7	73	27	0
Durazzo .	1,596	616	83,727	52·5	135·8	85	8	7
Elbasan .	2,955	1,141	105,145	35·6	92·2	92	8	0
Kosovë .	2,135	824	48,541	22·7	58·8	81	0	19
Korçë .	3,312	1,279	160,256	48·4	125·3	60	40	0
Gjinokastër	4,142	1,599	154,157	37·2	96·4	51	49	0
Tirana .	850	328	53,084	62·7	162·4	96	4	(0·3)
Valona .	1,360	525	54,369	40·0	103·5	66	34	(0·04)
Scutari .	4,870	1,880	137,748	28·3	73·3	38	1	61
Dibra .	2,386	921	88,159	36·9	95·7	80	2	18
TOTALS .	27,538	10,631	1,045,683	38·0	98·4	69·3*	20·4*	10·2*

* The remaining 0·1% consists of Protestants and Jews.

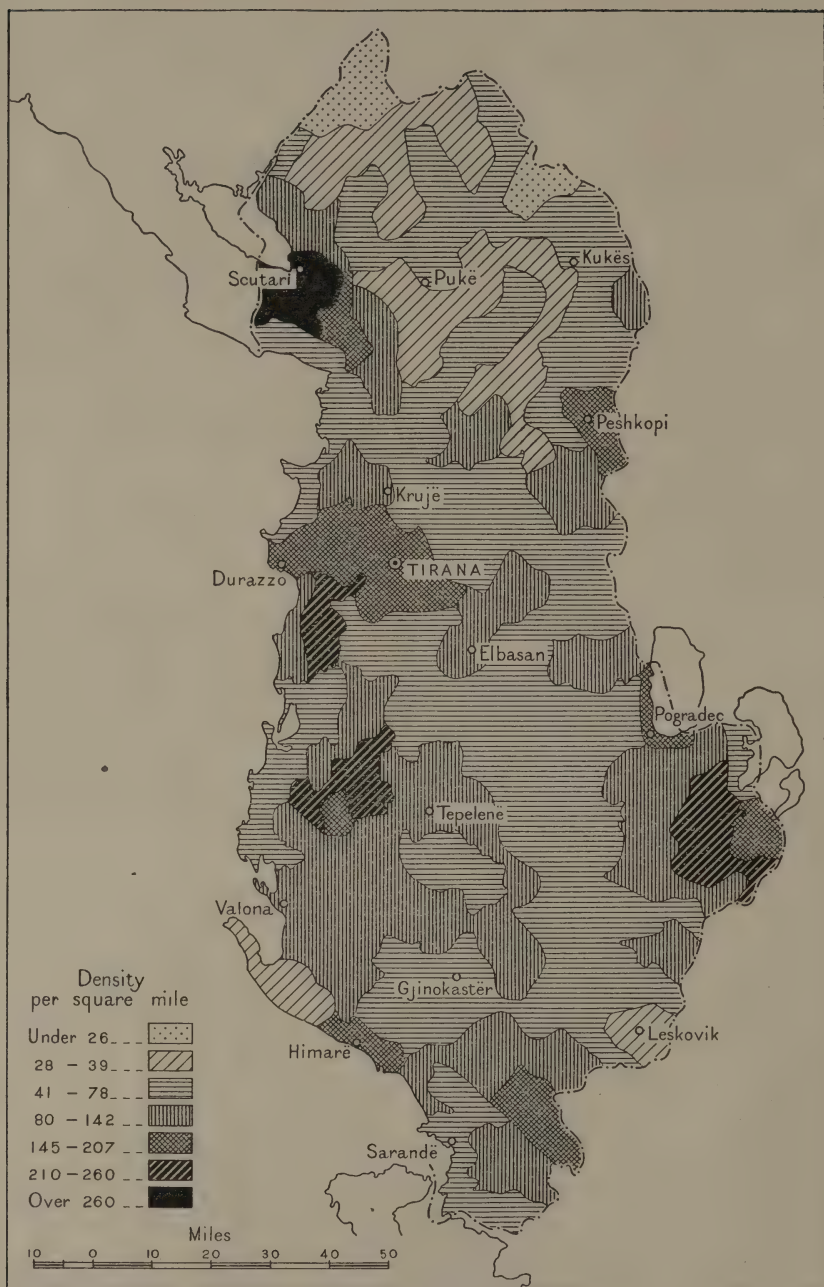


FIG. 25. *Density of Population*

In 1939 the population was estimated as 92 per cent. Albanian by descent; the remaining 8 per cent. being Greek, Vlach, Bulgarian, or Gipsy, with a few Serbs. Later figures are not necessarily comparable, as they may include data for the districts temporarily annexed to Albania from Yugoslavia after the Italian invasion.

Italian estimates claim also about 915,000 Albanians outside the frontiers before 1939; 700,000 in Yugoslavia in the basin of the White Drin (Kosovo plain), especially around Prizren, Đakovica, Tetovo, and the Metohija plain; and 215,000 in Greece. In 1930 there were in Italy and Sicily 110,000 descendants of 87,000 emigrants, mainly of the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries. There are 50,000 Albanians in the United States.

As the Balkan average density is 117 per square mile, it follows that Albania is, comparatively, under-populated, but much of the surface is uninhabitable, and cultivation, everywhere primitive, is still dependent upon a wooden ox-drawn plough, little rotation of crops, and no manuring except by sheep-grazing the fallows. There is, however, a good deal of small-scale irrigation.

After the German occupation of Yugoslavia large districts, where there are, or recently have been, Albanian inhabitants, were annexed to Albania. The Kosovo lowland, and the Debar district on the Black Drin (though not Ohrid), and also Dulcigno (Ulcinj) and the hill-country between Lake Scutari and the sea were the main additions. The area thus temporarily added is estimated at 5,509 square miles with 750,000 inhabitants, raising the totals to 26,139 square miles with 1,836,000 inhabitants.

Physical Types

Physical types vary locally, but some may be traced to immigrant strains.

There are many traditions of an 'aboriginal' population (*anas*), usually described as dark-haired, among whom the first Albanians settled, and some of whom became incorporated.

Prehistoric burials reveal an old long-headed strain which survives locally and is brunet. There are also broad-headed, dark complexioned, and very hairy types akin to those of the Alpine region and of Anatolia and Armenia. These latter have the characteristic wide brow and eyes, aquiline nose, square jaw, and flat occiput, and are often of great stature, with relatively small head. Other broad-headed types are broad-built and thick-set throughout, and sometimes fair. But fair hair, blue eyes, and the occasional red or auburn hair, probably

result from northern intrusions, as in Styria and the Tyrol. Many of these mixed types are found widely also among Montenegrins and Croats. In the Myzeqe coast plain there is a short, fair, blue-eyed breed. Sallow complexions are common, but are often due to malaria. Hard climate, and arduous mode of life, have spared only the strongest and healthiest; there are, however, as yet no statistics of infant mortality or of longevity. The Aromuni (Romanian, Vlach) pastorals have a distinct physique, with short head, wide face, short straight nose, and usually dark eyes and hair, though a fair type with light eyes has been reported beyond the Greek border. The Gipsies have very dark skin and various oriental features. The Greeks in Epirus are of variable head-form, swarthy, with wavy hair, lustrous eyes, and often the well-known open brow and straight nose inherited from Hellenic times.

Personal Character

Albanian character is a remarkable combination of resource, initiative, and courage on the one hand, tribal tradition and loyalty associated with intertribal treachery and violence on the other. Irrespective of status, attainments, or resources, Albanians rigidly observe a social and moral code of traditional behaviour. They possess a keen political sensibility which precludes neutrality or indifference on any matter of general concern. They respect and admire the powerful, so that the obligations of hereditary ties, or of local patriotism, may occasionally suffer. Our own Army Act draws a distinction between stealing the property of a comrade, and stealing from one of the public, but the Albanian would hardly recognize any similarity between the two. Where the limits of social obligation are so sharply defined as in tribal society, the same man may be loyal, generous, and hospitable to all within the bond, but haughty, morose, suspicious, and untrustworthy to those beyond it. In regard to such, ignorance, vanity, and self-interest may have free play. The Highlands of Scotland before 1745, the Berbers of the Atlas mountains before French occupation, and the tribal societies of the Indian north-west frontier afford striking parallels. Government among such people is essentially direct, and powerful personalities emerge from all social levels, but, in communities so poor and illiterate, wealth and education are respected, and the bond between overlord and retainer is strong. Guest-friendship is a fundamental tie, as it is in all such communities, and speech is emphatic and rhetorical. Where so high a standard of honesty and personal honour obtains,



82. *Fishermen's dug-out canoes: Lake Maliq: looking west across SW. end of Lake*



83. *Fish-traps for sea fish brought in by salinification channel (on left): Këneta e Durrësit: looking east from north end*



84. *Terrace cultivation: Cem gorge near Brojë*



85. *Winnowing grain on threshing-floor: near Klos, upper Mat valley*

a breach of tribal or feudal obligation meets with savage reprisal. Such men are excellent soldiers under leaders whom they trust, in a cause they understand and approve, and in country which gives scope for resource and endurance. Vivid imagination and inherited superstition are restrained in essentials by canny common-sense—blood feud, for example, has given place in some tribes to money-compensation—but find expression in popular poetry and romance, such as the *kurvelesh* epic in the south, and also on quite modern topics. There are local variations of temperament; dull and phlegmatic in Myzeqe, lively and volatile around Valona, industrious and agreeable at Kukës, ungracious in Mirditë. Allowance must be made in the lowlands for endemic malaria, in the highlands for under-nourishment and tuberculosis, and in wine-growing districts and the cold wet highlands for alcoholism.

TRIBAL STRUCTURE IN NORTH ALBANIA

The social structure of Albania was originally tribal, like that of the ancient Illyrians and Thracians, and of the immigrant Slavs and Bulgars. In the Northern Highlands and as far south as Dibra and the whole Mat basin, this tribal organization has been preserved with less change than anywhere else in Europe, though even here, in the Mirditë and Matjë groups, a few numerous and powerful clans have risen to local dominance over a group of tribes. Farther south, successive foreign conquerors, and especially the Slavs and the Turks, have reduced the tribesmen to economic serfdom and deprived them of political privileges. But all Albanians cherish their tribal status and allegiance, whatever their religion, language, economic standing, or place of residence, and rally to any cause which defends or restores the ancient custom and mode of life.

An Albanian tribe (*fis*) usually consists of persons descended in the male line from one male ancestor, who are regarded as brothers and sisters, and may not intermarry, however distantly related. Accordingly very long pedigrees are remembered, though few go back beyond the great disturbances of the fourteenth century. Only male descent counts, however, and there is much intermarriage between tribes closely related on the female side. Here the Catholic Church prohibits the marriage of second cousins, but no further. In some tribes marriages between Christians and Moslems are common and highly approved.

Some tribes are groups of several such stocks (*bajrak*: Turk. 'standard'), between which marriage is usually permitted. Many

have incorporated refugees, sometimes of another creed. The post of *bajraktar* (head of a *bajrak*) is hereditary, but has lost its earlier importance. A *bajrak* consists of groups of *vllaznit* ('brethren': Turk. *mehala*) including second cousins or further.

There has been much displacement of tribes, and some subdivision and dispersal, without breach of kinship rules. Principal crises of displacement were the Roman, Serb, and Turkish conquests, aggravated because whereas Roman Christianity was Latin (Western), the Serbs were Orthodox (Eastern), and the Turks were Moslems. The present distribution mainly results from the Turkish conquests, but there has been persistent migration of Albanian clans into adjacent districts, especially back into the Kosovo province to the north-east, which had been overrun by the Serbs. The Vula group for example, from Bytyç and Mertur, founded Jakova (*Serb*. Đakovica) and became mostly Moslem, while retaining Christian designs in their silver-work.

Many tribes are, or have been, associated in larger territorial groups, such as Kelmendi, Mirdita, and Matja. But these groups are variously described, and some merely correspond to districts. In the later section on tribes alternative groupings are noted, and also the adjacent tribes. When a tribe has only one *bajrak* it is difficult to be certain that it is not itself a *bajrak* of a neighbouring group. Some groups live in fortified *kullë* houses of several stories like the peel-towers of the Scottish Highlands, but these are absent from the wilder districts, where the settlements are stockaded farmsteads or unprotected groups of farms and huts. Churches and mosques are rare, and are centres of intercourse between villages. They are usually mean and often ruinous. The Frontier Commission of 1924 was shown one 'church' which was a mere enclosure with some crosses but no building at all. There are a few monasteries which hold considerable estates and may be independent of the diocese within which they stand.

The Canon of Lek Dukagjin

Travellers in Albania inquiring about tribal custom (recognized in Moslem law as *adet*) are usually given the same answer, 'because Lek ordered it!' The ordinances of Lek (Alexander) Dukagjin, transmitted through tribal elders with little change, are respected by Christians and Moslems alike, nor in general can either priest or *hoxha* prevail against them.

Little, however, is known of the personality of Lek. The Dukagjin

were leading chiefs in north Albania. A papal document of 1216 refers to 'Gini son of Demetrius, Count of Albania'; and *Dux Ginius* (Duke John) was captured by Johannes Scotus at Durazzo in 1281. In 1387 the brothers Lek and Paul Dukagjin, dwelling along the trade-road from Scutari to Prizren, permit men of Ragusa to pass through their lands. In 1393 the 'sons of Lek' hand over the castle of Alessio (Lesh) to Venice to defend against the Turks. A great-grandson, Lek II, 'lord of Dagno and Zadrima' (1444-1459), is probably Lek of the *Canon*. When the Turks took Scutari in 1472, he and many others fled to Italy (1479), but after the death of Mohammed II in 1481 he returned, like Ivan Tzrnovitch the founder of Montenegro. Though he seems to have done no homage to the Sultan, he was excommunicated by Pope Paul II in 1464 for his 'most un-Christian' code. Two later Dukagjin chiefs became Moslems; a 'Luca Ducagini, Duke of Pulato' was in Venice in 1506; and the Bib Doda family, hereditary chiefs of Mirditë, claim Dukagjin descent, like the Bielopavlitch (White Paul) tribe in Montenegro.

Severe as many of Lek's ordinances appear now, he certainly tried, like Draco of Athens, to check crime by prescribing specific punishments, and to enforce the law through the councils of tribal elders, codifying it and permitting fine or house-burning as humaner alternatives to the death penalty. His most important enactments deal with blood feuds.

What is peculiar in Albanian society is the excessive sense of clan-solidarity and of personal dignity. And since personal affronts can only be avenged by bloodshed, and to avenge bloodshed is obligatory on every member of the clan, the occasions for it are endless. Men walk a rifle's-length apart, women a distaff's length apart, to avoid an accidental blow: disputes on matters of fact, which elsewhere would be settled by a bet, may be fatal. Mere boys kill and are killed; infants and the unborn are not wholly exempt.

Murdër within the tribe may result from a quarrel or from a blood feud more or less remote. The killer flees at once to a safe place outside the tribe; there is no secrecy, and any house must give him hospitality. Among the Dukagjin tribes, his male relatives must also flee. His own tribal chiefs order his house to be burnt, and may also destroy his crops, fruit-trees, and cattle, and devastate his lands. His women and children scatter and are taken into other houses. A man can save his house if he returns and can defend it for three days, or persuade others to do so. In *Malsija e madhe* ('the Great Highland') a man

may redeem it by a fine. The killer (*gjaksuer*) may ask the avenging 'lord of blood' (*zot i gjakut*) for a *besa* (truce); men of standing in the tribe are accepted by both to examine the facts and negotiate terms of peace, which are sworn by all parties in the church or mosque. On payment of the agreed fine, the *gjaksuer* may return and repair his house; often he swears blood-brotherhood with the *zot i gjakut*. A sworn truce (*besa*) may be arranged on any pretext, and on any scale, and postpones all local quarrels. There is permanent *besa* for households entertaining guests; for women, and all men escorting women; on principal through-routes during daylight, and on all irrigation works. Infringement of *besa* is punished by blood feud, like murder. When a *besa* between families or tribes is intended to be permanent, it may be sanctioned by blood-brotherhood rite or by marriage alliance. Among the Tosks of Himarë there is an agreed blood-price, formerly 2,000 Turkish piastres, or 1,000 piastres in Vuno village. Blood may be taken for killing a woman, but the blood-price is small, and it is a family affair. Killing is not punishable if inflicted for rape or adultery, or when a murderer is killed the same day.

Murder outside the tribe is avenged by the relatives, on any relative of the killer, and this in turn is avenged till the feud is ended by a council of elders of both tribes.

Wounding comes under the laws for blood, but the fine is proportionate to the injury. For accidental wounding a fine must be paid, but the house is not burnt.

Theft within the tribe leads to appeal, first to the head of the thief's family, then to the head of the clan (*bajraktar*); the procedure is analogous to that for killing or wounding. The fine is double the value stolen, with higher rates for house-breaking, for church property, and formerly for cocks, which, like the geese of early Rome, rank as watch-dogs.

Theft from another tribe is less a crime than a form of sport, like cattle-lifting on borderlands elsewhere; especially between tribes which, through blood feud, have no *besa* with each other. Gradually, however, the more intelligent headmen, and the priests, have been working towards a judicial procedure and a more liberal use of *besa*. Apart from such recognized feats of courage and skill, there is little dishonesty, especially towards travellers, who are always guests or escorted by respected tribesmen. Many offences against tribal rights in pasture or forest are punished by fines.

By proclaiming and enforcing a general *besa*, and by general dis-



86. *Pasture in highland, SE. of M. i Bërarit: devastated forest on foothills*



87. *Pasture in Mat valley near Fulqet*



88. Pasture in alluvial lowland, east of Knetë e Tërbufit



89. Trees cultivated for fruit and fuel at Shingjon village in Kushë valley, 3 miles west by north of Elbasan

armament except in the Mirditë, Matjë and Dibër tribes, the government of King Zog claimed to have brought blood feud within the arm of the law.

Inheritance

No land may be sold or bequeathed outside the tribe, and only to the nearest male relative. This has restrained alienation to foreign capitalists, but has retarded economic development. Women cannot inherit land. House and annexed lands are inherited equally by all sons, who usually continue to live at home under the management of the eldest. Sometimes, for security, a son-in-law lives and works in the family of his wife. A childless man's heirs are his brothers. A childless widow returns to her father's house; but a widow minds her son's house till he is 15, while a guardian administers his affairs. If there is only a daughter, the widow may remain a hundred days, but may then be cast out, while the daughter remains part of the household, and the heir finds her a husband. A Dukagjin widow often marries one of her brothers-in-law as a 'levirate wife', but this is discouraged by the Roman Church. If a widow's son has died before his father, she may either continue to manage the house or return to her father's house, where the heir must supply her with necessaries unless she marries again. A married daughter no longer belongs to her father's house and inherits nothing from him.

Women have few rights or privileges, and are heavily worked in the household and on the land, but their lives are protected by a general *besa*, and no killing is allowed in their presence. They can therefore move about unprotected while men who are 'in feud' dare not do so. Their murder is not avenged by blood feud, and their blood-price is low. A bride's purchase-money is about the value of a horse, and is a payment to the father for the loss of his daughter's work. Woman's principal duties, apart from child-bearing, cattle-tending, and milking, are carrying water and fuel; corn-grinding, baking, and cooking; spinning, knitting, weaving, and making clothes. In addition to field work, she is responsible for garden produce. The elaborate 'prohibited degrees' preclude marriage of near kindred on the father's side, but not on the mother's. Within the household women are respected and consulted. Girls are often betrothed in infancy, and even before birth; but occasionally a girl refuses the parents' choice, and either marries another man (at the risk of blood feud) or becomes a sworn 'virgin' adopting male costume and habits.

Such 'virgins' remain in their own family and are maintained in consideration of their labour.

Tribal business is conducted by a large council including heads of houses and clans, the *bajraktar*, and twelve elected elders; it is competent to regulate relations with the Government, participation in war or revolt, rights of pasture forestry and water-supply, and breaches of the numerous 'laws of Lek', including the extermination of an undesirable person or family.

Many of these customs are observed also in Montenegro and in the more backward parts of Serbia, where the Slav 'undivided family' (*zadruga*) is even larger than the Albanian household and more closely organized in tribes (*plemene*). In Montenegro a 'canon' like that of Lek Dukagjin was published by the Vladika (prince-bishop) Peter I in 1796, but had little effect on the system of blood-vengeance. In 1853 Prince Danilo issued a more elaborate code, to be enforced by specially appointed justices, in a more modern spirit of humanity. On the other hand, the Serbian 'canon' of Stephen Dushan differs radically from both the Albanian and the Montenegrin, for Serbian society in 1349 was already feudalized. From the Tsar the nobles held large estates (*bushtina*) and many class privileges, and the rest of the people were serfs (*merop* or *rabot*) or slaves (*otrok* or *rob*). Lands not held by the nobles were the property of the Tsar or of the national Church. Each Serbian family practised blood vengeance (*osveta*) for its own members, but the Tsar was supreme judge between families or clans, and nobles and monasteries dealt with offences on their respective estates like the Moslem *beys* in central and southern Albania.

SOCIAL STRUCTURE IN CENTRAL ALBANIA

In central Albania, less isolated and more populous and fertile, the independent tribes and clans fell, after the Turkish conquest, into the power of *beys* and *agas*. Some of these were hereditary chieftains who had co-operated with the conqueror, others Turkish fighting men, rewarded in land for their services, or tax-gatherers confiscating tribal lands when tribute was in arrear. Their wealth gave them power, its origin made them unprogressive and unpopular, and they have fortified their *kullë*-towers and large farmsteads against their neighbours. Here the foreign element of culture is oriental, or at least Constantinopolitan, in houses, mosques, food, dress, and decorative art. There are vineyards, orchards, and gardens, sufficient for the needs of the wealthy landowners, but relatively little export except

cattle and cheese. Much good land remains uncultivated because it is needed for pasture, which is more profitable. The tenants have become practically serfs and miserably poor, living in scattered farmsteads or labour-groups, paying one-third of their produce to the *bey* as well as one-tenth to the Government, and having also to hire plough-oxen and to pay for irrigation water. They have therefore lost all interest in self-government or in politics of any kind; even the tribal groups have become disintegrated. Under this regime there is little encouragement to increase production; and the *beys* have no interest in commerce, nor aptitude for it. Nor do the recent agricultural bank-credits avail much, in face of the hostility of the *beys*. When Ottoman rule collapsed, the *beys* supported Albanian independence to avert Greek or Serbian conquest, but have opposed all projects for land-reform. A leading *bey*, Shefket Verlaci, was at first an ally of Ahmed Zogu against the land-reforming bishop Fan Noli, but opposed him when he too promoted land-reform. Many *beys* were tempted by foreign speculators to sell their estates, pay their debts, and live sumptuously abroad. But the Assembly refused to alter the law, based on tribal custom, prohibiting the ownership of land by aliens; and this saved Albania from the fate of other lands where foreign corporations have acquired landed interests. The *beys* therefore have remained a political force, reluctant to co-operate in social reforms, such as were projected by Fan Noli, and King Zog after his breach with Shefket Verlaci, which would inevitably restrict their revenues and personal privileges. Many are said to have co-operated with the Italians, and Shefket Verlaci was one of their most open supporters.

Though feuds and personal rivalries prevent close or permanent understanding among the *beys*, the prospects in central Albania are favourable for a capitalist state based on the Moslem landowners. Unfortunately the fear of agrarian risings, provoked by long-standing economic grievances, and fomented by foreign liberals and communists, has tempted those who are in possession of the material resources of Albania not only to oppose any kind of change but to accept, and even to solicit, the intervention of interested foreign Powers, formerly Turkey, then Austria, and lastly Italy.

SOUTH ALBANIAN POPULATIONS

In the south, more rugged and subdivided than the centre, but more fertile locally than the north, many peasants are small free-

holders, probably by partition of the lands of tribe or clan. Their standard of living is higher, and many, especially round Korçë, are returned emigrants who have earned capital in the United States or receive income from relatives there. Even among persons of Albanian descent there is Greek influence, political consciousness, and a programme of land-reform which brings them into collision with the *beys*. Many are Orthodox, and have been educated at Salonica or Athens, whilst the Moslems go to Istanbul. They long supported the liberal leader, Fan Noli. Formerly they were attracted by the aspirations of their Greek neighbours. They learned Greek, and supported Orthodox congregations and schools, but latterly they have been impressed by the nationalist propaganda of Albanian state schools. The numerous artisans and traders congregate in towns such as Gjinokastër and Korçë and those who live on the land inhabit small hamlets, limited by the water-supply. In Himarë, under more Mediterranean conditions, there are closely agglomerated villages and small towns as in Greece.

In contrast with the Catholic 'Geg' tribes of northern Albania, the population of Albanian Epirus is essentially 'Tosk' and mainly Moslem; but there are many Aromuni (Vlachs) because there is much pasture, and many Greeks because the topography and climate are continuous with those of Greek Epirus, while communications are easy along the valley routes. In the towns there are many sedentary Gipsies as well as some nomads. Strictly speaking, the Tosks are the people between the lower Shkumbî and the Vjosë, but the people of Laberia south of the Vjosë, and the Çam group in Çamërija farther south, are closely related. All three groups consist of sub-tribes, but are less self-contained than the northern highlanders. There are other related groups in Metohija and near Skoplje (Üsküb), but in 1913 the districts of Niš and Nimok opted for Serbian nationality. All these inland districts were, however, very mixed, with Bulgars near Negotin and Niš, and Greeks south of Skoplje. As in the central districts, the tribal system has been disintegrated in the interior, though it survives to some degree, with its characteristic customs, in the maritime highland of Laberia. It was long dominated by Turkish *beys* and by Ottoman garrisons at Berat, Tepelenë, Valona, and farther south at Yannina. Though Greek is spoken in the churches and taught in Greek schools, many Albanians speak Tosk at home and are claimed by politicians as 'albanophone' Greeks. It must be remembered that even where tribal communities have been dissolved, and tribal lands distributed to tribesmen in small freeholds, tribal kinship and tradi-

tion are cherished, and descent and speech are stronger ties than church or schooling.

In the south the Tosks are for the most part Moslem, with few *beys* or feudal distinctions; they retain patriarchal grouping and feudal organization, and are more coherent and influential politically than the northern highlanders. Many of them are of the Bektashi sect. Contact with Greeks and Vlachs has made the Tosks cultured and lively; their houses are clean, and their women better treated than among the Gegs. Their country is much dissected, with a few areas of concentrated population (up to 130 per sq. mile). But the rivers are over-deepened in the fertile valleys, water-supply is limited, and settlements are restricted to the neighbourhood of springs, which are often high on the hill-sides. In Kurvelesh, for example, springs emerge up to 3,600 feet. Forests are less frequent than in the north, and houses are of stone rather than of timber, with ground floor for stable and stores, and living-rooms above (Turk. *selamlık* for men and *haremlık* for women). Stone slabs, and occasionally tiles, are used for roofs. Glass windows are rare. Houses are often grouped round a court, for shelter and defence, but there are few fortified *kullë*-towers. The valleys are cultivated with maize and some wheat, with pasture on the uplands often at a distance. Landowners find pasture more profitable because its produce can be exported, and therefore restrict agriculture. The owners of the cattle are either whole villages or Tosk *beys* or Vlachs. The latter have very large herds and are important members of the community, but do not own land.

Communications are easier than in the north, and sometimes cross the ranges, making use of transverse gorges like that of Këlcyrë. With one-fifth of the area, the south has about one-half of the total road-length. Bridges are rare and primitive, and the old Turkish arch-bridges have suffered from recent warfare; but there are fords, a few ferries, and some recent Italian concrete bridges.

MINORITIES

Albania has its minorities, like other Balkan countries.

The Greeks in the southern provinces, physically and economically continuous with northern Epirus, are the most numerous and important. In 1930 about 50,000 persons were recorded as Greek-speaking, but most speak Albanian as well. In the towns, especially Korçë and Gjinokastër, they form compact communities of traders and industrials, but there are Greek villages too, some with Greek

names ill disguised in Albanian spelling. The districts where they are numerous are the most progressive and prosperous.

It illustrates the general distribution of the northern fringe of Greek settlements, that whereas Thessaly has always ranked as Hellenic, and Macedonia as at least superficially so, the Greek city-state system west of the watershed was very ill developed even as far south as Phocis, Aetolia, and Acarnania, and faded out altogether at the gulf of Arta; being replaced farther to the north-west by sporadic Corinthian 'colonies'—Leucas, Anactorium, Ambracia, Sollium—among non-Greek tribal societies, the ancestors of tribal Albanians.

In later classical times hellenization of these north-western peoples went on: but the mainland was always *epeiros*, continental, vast, chaotic, and uncongenial to Greeks. This was in the main a matter of climate and vegetation rather than of structure; and later the same drawbacks to hellenization facilitated—and indeed enforced—the southward movements of the Albanians, and the replacement of Christianity by Islam under Turkish rule. But there was always a debatable land, in the three districts of Himarë (Chimara), Gjinokastër (Argyrokastro), and Korçë (Koritsa), where the language was still Albanian but the religion Orthodox (not Latin) Christianity, and the only schools (till lately) also Orthodox. This debatable land would have extended even farther south if Ali Pasha had not adopted Greek as the official language of his principality around Yannina. There are also considerable groups of families of Greek descent, who have settled in the last century or earlier in Gjinokastër, Korçë, and elsewhere, for trade or industry, and also as farmers on the rich valley lands. Their position was fairly secure, because in 1923 Greece was not allowed to expatriate Moslem Albanians from Epirus. In mixed communities, e.g. Korçë, Berat, and Durazzo, their clean houses, with flowers and gardens, are characteristic. In the wooded districts they herd pigs as well as sheep and goats. There has long been active Greek propaganda here, and Greek claims have been recognized repeatedly by the Western Powers. In 1913 Greece, which has always taken the keenest interest in the Greek settlements in Albania, claimed as *irredenta* all Epirus to a line from Valona to the south end of Lake Ochrida: but the line adopted by the Peace Conference in that year was confirmed by the International Boundary Commission in 1924 on the basis of majority populations. In the southern provinces, however, though the state schools are Albanian, the Greek community maintained its own, and in 1935 the Hague Tribunal disallowed an Albanian attempt to dissolve them. It must be remembered that,

though the tribes and clans in the districts are much disintegrated, persons of Albanian descent are more closely bound by ties of kinship than by language, worship, or mode of life.

Aromuni (Romanian, Vlach) settlements are confined to districts of central and southern Albania where there is ample pasture, for they are almost wholly pastoral, and some are nomad, or at least come and go between summer and winter pastures. They are estimated at between 10,000 and 20,000 and are Orthodox. There are three main groups:

- (1) In the Kolonjë district, south of Korçë, mainly pastoral and migratory. Instead of stone houses they have beehive-shaped huts of wattle, though some migratory groups have tents of coarse cloth.
- (2) At Qenurjo (*Gk.* Kenourio), also in timber-framed huts with wattle-and-daub walls and thatch of bracken and reeds, without doors, windows, or smoke-hole, surrounded by a gutter for rain-water. Within are stone hearth and chest of slabs, fixed tables, a loom-pit, carpets, and woven hangings. Separate huts are reserved for guests and meetings.
- (3) At Frashër, north of Kokojka, in the pass between the Osum and Lengaricë headwaters. Here the Vlachs are more settled, and the men are transport-drivers. They are also numerous around Korçë—where the name Voskopojë (*Gk.* Moschopolis 'calf-city') records them—round Berat (with many lowland villages), and from Butrinto to Konispol, but they have also their separate quarter in the larger towns. Vlachs are quiet, inoffensive folk, and in towns become assimilated to the dominant element.

Gipsies are estimated at 10,000, of whom some are nomad but others have settlements outside the larger towns. They practise horse-dealing, transport, farriery, and iron-working.

Bulgar communities, such as Borovë on the Greek frontier between Korçë and Leskovik, and other 'Macedonian Slavs', have been gradually withdrawn by agreement since 1932.

Serbs and *Montenegrins* were to have been completely withdrawn by 1941 under agreement. In 1939 there were about 4,000 Serbs west of Ohrid, and a few Montenegrins near Scutari. On the left bank of the Rrjoll, between Prroni i thatë and Kir valleys, Vrakë and several other villages were inhabited by Serbian refugees and gave occasional trouble. There are also many Slav place-names in districts now wholly Albanian. On the other hand, there are both Albanians and

Albanian place-names east and north of the frontier, some from the same tribes and clans as in the Northern Highland.

Albanians in South Italy and Sicily

Many Albanians settled in south Italy and Sicily during the fifteenth century, some as veteran mercenaries of the Anjou kings of Naples, others to escape from Ottoman conquest, after the death of Skanderbeg (1467). They were followed by many others, chiefly Tosks from the south, up to the eighteenth century. Their principal settlements were in the provinces of Puglia, Molise, Basilicata, Calabria, and Sicily. Some are small isolated villages, wholly Albanian, others small towns with an Italian admixture. There has been much intermarriage, and most people of Albanian descent are bilingual, but some speak Italian only whilst a few still speak Albanian only. Few are now nomadic, and most are engaged in agriculture and homecrafts. Being predominantly Orthodox Christians, they are often described as 'Greeks' and confused with real Greek settlements. They have bishops and theological colleges at San Demetrio Corone near Cosenza, and at Palermo, where Piano dei Greci is one of their largest communities (c. 8,500). In 1861 they numbered 55,000; in 1901, 96,000; in 1921, about 80,000 out of provincial totals of 530,000. They are reputed to be good Italian subjects, but are liable to take an active part in Albanian controversies; and one of the candidates for the principedom of Albania in 1914 was of Italian birth.

RELIGION

The distribution of religions in Albania results from historical causes already described. From the old Roman provinces of Dalmatia and Illyria, western culture and Latin Christianity spread as far south as the Egnatian Way, and were accepted by the Croat invaders. From the south and east came Greek culture, with Orthodox doctrine and ritual, dominated by the Patriarchate of Constantinople and converting the Bulgars and Serbs. Along the line of contact between these two traditions, the Turkish conquest introduced Moslem immigrants, and in the less defensible districts many Albanian tribes accepted Islam.

Catholics survive almost exclusively in the north, especially in the highlands, where neither Slavs nor Moslems have intruded. Their continuous intercourse with Rome has been encouraged, for political reasons, by Venice and Hungary in medieval times, by the Austrian



90. *Typical houses near Dardhë, 7 miles SSE. of Korçë. Walls of rubble and roofs of stone slabs or boards*



91. *A Moslem village of wood and wattle*



92. *Mosque, minaret, and clock tower in Elbasan*



93. *A recent mosque in Durazzo*

Empire since the eighteenth century, and more recently by Italy. But their society being tribal, their numbers small, and their poverty extreme, they have offered little opportunity to churchmen. There are few monasteries or seminaries, and the scattered priests—formerly Benedictines and Jesuits, but now mostly Franciscans—have little but ritual functions, though some have striven to modify the more barbaric usages and to spread education and western morals. There are Catholic archbishops at Scutari and Durazzo, bishops at Lesh, Pulati, and Scutari, a mitred abbot at Orosh in Mirditë, and an Apostolic Delegate to the Holy See. The Malissori (highland tribal) priests were trained formerly in an Austrian seminary and supported locally by Austrian consuls. In 1914–1918 they were actively hostile to the Allies. Their sympathy with the Bosnian Moslems may be compared with their inveterate antipathy to the Orthodox Church, for ‘Orthodox’ north of Albania means ‘Slav’, as it means ‘Greek’ in Epirus.

A small *Uniate* community, of Orthodox reconciled to Rome, survives at Elbasan.

The Moslems are most homogeneous in central Albania, where all are orthodox Sunnis, accepting the revelation of Mohammed as final and the Koran as inspired, subject only to traditional interpretation. Northward, Islam spread tribe by tribe, and the border-line is therefore precise, where the Prokletija (‘Accursed’) mountains in the north-east, between Gusinje and Shalë, mark the limit of Ottoman intrusion north of the Drin. In the centre the intrusion of Ottoman Turks as feudal occupants of estates, not limited by tribal boundaries, has disorganized tribal structure and reduced the tribesmen to serfdom. These Ottoman *beys*, closely coherent as a dominant minority, have usually been able to repress discontent before it broke into revolt. Under modern conditions, and especially since their separation from Turkey left them at the mercy of Christian neighbours, the Moslems fear extinction or absorption. This feeling is especially strong among the Orthodox population of the south, but is also present among the Catholics of the north, where there is active Italian propaganda. Yet in some highland tribes, which intermarry, Moslems have been becoming more numerous than Catholics. Mosques and priests (*hoxhas*) are rare except in the towns.

Bektashis. In south Albania the orthodox Sunni Moslems are confronted by many Bektashis. The Bektashi sect was founded by a Persian, Haji Bektash Veli, who died in 1338. Its doctrines resemble those of the Houroufi sect, whose mystical leader Fadh-i-ullah was

murdered in 1394. Nominally Moslems, the Bektashis drink wine, do not veil their women, and observe no regular hours or places for prayer. Their mystical doctrines are secret and confined to initiates and *dervish* priests, who have no mosques, but form *teqe* communities and maintain themselves by farming. Their main principles are that Divine Goodness is the life and soul of all; that man is the highest expression of divine power, and has received manifestation of the divine spirit from time to time; and that heaven or hell is created by each man for himself by his deeds. They see good in all creeds, are tolerant, ignore social differences, respect women, and teach industry, charity, and humility.

Dervish Sari Sallteku came to Albania from Corfu before 1400, and founded the Sari Saltik *teqe* above Krujë, together with six others. Skanderbeg is said to have been a Bektashi while in Ottoman service. Bektashi progress in north Albania was checked by Kara Mahmoud Bushati in the eighteenth century, but was favoured by Ali Pasha, who was himself a secret convert. In the national movement the Bektashis, tolerant of all creeds, took a leading part, and incurred the hostility of Sunni Moslems and the fanatical *beys* of the lowlands, who supported Ottoman rule and opposed Prince William of Wied (1914). In January 1922 a Bektashi assembly broke away from the headquarters of the sect at Ankara, but in September 1925, when the Turkish Republic suppressed religious orders and closed the *teqes*, the Supreme Bektashi, an Albanian, settled at Tirana, and in 1929 the sect was recognized as autonomous within the Moslem community of Albania, with statutes drawn up at Korçë. Of the estimated 7,370,000 Bektashis some 200,000 are Albanians, and their numbers are said to increase, especially among the young. The last Ministry of King Zog was essentially Bektashi.

The Orthodox Christians are almost all Tosks, inhabiting the southern provinces which have been influenced since classical times by Greek language and culture, and received their religion also from the Eastern Church. But the only compact Orthodox districts are around Gjinokastër and Himarë, and a few villages of Serbian Orthodox refugees in the plain north of Scutari.

Thus while religious beliefs in Albania have an intelligible distribution, geographical and historical, their effects are not easily distinguished from those of secular culture and of economic organization. Where the tribal structure is unimpaired, Albanian nationalism is strong; where the Turks created large feudal estates, the *beys*, though Albanian now, are Moslems, still dominating a distressed and resent-

ful peasantry, some of whom look for relief to Greece, or to whatever foreign interest is not backing their masters. There is a further consideration, that the geographical barriers towards Valona and Durazzo divert intercourse and trade southward towards Yannina and Arta, and eastward towards Florina and Salonica. Gjinokastër province is estimated to be 60 per cent. Christian; but the town itself, full of *beys*, merchants, and officials, is 80 per cent. Moslem, and Valona 70 per cent.

The Orthodox Church of Albania only became independent ('autocephalous') in 1937, after a long struggle. In eastern Christianity each National Church is a member of the whole Church, subject to the General Church Council and Oecumenical Patriarch at Constantinople in matters of doctrine, but otherwise independent internally under its own synod, which must include at least five bishops. The senior bishop presides at the election of an archbishop who becomes primate and head of the National Church. Under Ottoman rule, the Patriarch was further recognized as political head of the whole Greek *millet*—the term describing any organized body of non-Moslem subjects of the Sultan. As the Balkan nationalities matured and were liberated politically, each National Church, including most or all of the nation, received from the Patriarch a charter (*tomos*) of 'autocephaly'. The Albanian Church, however, was a minority in a mainly Moslem and partly Catholic country. There was the risk lest a national 'King of the Albanians', who, even if not a Moslem, might be a Catholic, might put religious pressure on his Orthodox subjects. There were the rival claims, and nationalist propaganda, of the Orthodox Churches in Yugoslavia and of Greece, which were already 'autocephalous'. Further, in times of political unrest, church organization had been neglected, and when the learned and able Fan Noli became Bishop of Durazzo, he was the only Orthodox bishop whose see was in Albania.

Fan Noli set himself to reorganize and liberate the Albanian Church, and at first all went well. He appointed a Greek bishop, Hierotheos, to the see of Korçë; then applied to the Patriarch for a *tomos*. The Patriarch sent Chrysanthos, Bishop of Trebizond, to negotiate, but, when all seemed to be in order, recognition was withheld, because the Patriarch refused to consecrate any Albanian to the Albanian sees which were still vacant. Fan Noli, who was now Premier (1924), failed to persuade Hierotheos to join him in consecrating Albanians as bishops, but he induced the Serbian Metropolitan Bishop of Peć, beyond the Yugoslav border, to do so, and thus

reconstituted an acting synod at Korçë. When Fan Noli fell from political office and was exiled, early in 1925, President Zogu, though a Moslem, had to deal with the matter, and recognized Vissarion, the newly consecrated Bishop of Tirana, as head of the Albanian Church. The Patriarch ordered Hierotheos to resign Korçë and return to Greece, and declared the intervention of the Serbian Metropolitan to be null and void. The Albanian bishops, however, consecrated a third. Unfortunately the behaviour of Vissarion became so disreputable that the President asked him to resign, and replaced him by an Albanian, Kristofor Kissi, who had been consecrated as bishop in Constantinople long before, but had been imprisoned in Albania for political reasons. So matters remained until 1935, when negotiations with the Patriarch were resumed. Reputable Albanians were consecrated to complete a synod, and in 1937 the *tomos* was issued, the synod elected Kissi to be its president, and he thus became Archbishop of Tirana, and primate of an autocephalous Albanian Church.

Numbers. The census of 1930 recorded 688,280 Moslems, 210,313 Orthodox, and 104,184 Catholics.

The relative numbers of these confessions have been estimated as follows:

	<i>Estimated in 1923</i>	<i>Census of 1930</i>
Moslems . . .	67%	688,280
Orthodox . . .	21%	210,313
Catholic . . .	12%	104,186

For a recent estimate of comparative numbers in the prefectures see p. 129.

DRESS

The highland Gëgs in the north wear very tight woollen trousers with embroidery, black on white in summer, white on black or brown in winter; coloured woollen socks, with leather moccasins (*opinga*) out of doors, and embroidered over-socks (*çorap*) at home; loose shirt, tucked inside the trousers; tight low-necked waistcoat (*dollama*) and jacket (*kjurdan*); and white conical or domed cap. The hair is shaven or cut short, except one long lock on the crown; moustaches are worn, and a beard by the older men; but younger men who have been to America are usually clean-shaven.

The Geg women wear loose linen or cotton trousers under a full shift, and a sleeved shirt, with broad iron-plated belt under a low-necked waistcoat, richly embroidered. Over all is a long coat, with sleeves, open in front, with embroidery on skirt, margins, and



94. *Orthodox church of St. George, Korçë*



95. *The Turkish Legation in Tirana. Modern Turkish style*



96. *Peasant women, near Bicaj, east of the Black Drin*



97. *Albanian guerrillas: note the variety of physical types, Greek (left), Albanian (centre), and Slav (right)*

sleeves. The designs vary from tribe to tribe. Out of doors a shawl, or a loose cape with a hood, is worn over all. Socks and moccasins resemble those of the men, and in some tribes there are embroidered head-dresses festooned with coins.

The Tosks wear tight knee-breeches with leggings of the same woollen cloth, white in summer, dark in winter; red socks; a linen shirt with sleeves to the elbow; woollen waistcoat and jacket open in front and embroidered, with slits at the armpits so that the sleeves may be thrown back; white cloth cap and thick woollen cloak (*kapota*). The pleated linen kilt (*fustanella*) is worn for ceremonies. In the coloured waistband are carried a sheath-knife, pistol, tobacco pouch, and money.

The Tosk women wear a linen shift with long wide sleeves; a dark bodice, embroidered; a long white coat to the ankles; loose white drawers; and a coloured kerchief on the head. Even the Moslem women do not usually veil, except in some parts of the lowland.

In central Albania men wear wide trousers of Turkish pattern, of brown wool, gathered at the ankles; a waistcoat and a short black jacket with sailor-collar, which is turned up in bad weather. Its black fringe commemorates the death of Skanderbeg. A red sash supports a heavy leathern belt for knife and cartridges. In all districts the thick upper garments are discarded in warm weather.

The Aromuni wear dark brown or blue dress like the Tosk, with a wide brown cape.

Western costumes are, however, becoming fashionable, especially in the coast districts. Native clothes soon wear out, and home industries, especially those of weaving and embroidery, are becoming disorganized.

Tattooing (*sharati*) was practised by Balkan tribes, Thracian, Illyrian, and Celtic, in ancient times. It is still common and elaborate in Bosnia, but becomes rarer southwards. In Albania it is chiefly practised by Catholic or Moslem women, but not by the Orthodox. The pigment is gunpowder or soot, rubbed into needle-pricks. Old women know the traditional patterns, combinations of crosses and circles, the names of which—e.g. 'ear of corn', 'fern twigs', 'fir-tree'—betray pictorial origins; some represent the moon. Similar designs recur on prehistoric monuments and on modern Balkan jewellery, on Catholic and Moslem gravestones, and on woodwork. Women are tattooed at puberty, on 19 March (St. Joseph's Day), 25 March (Lady Day), and Palm Sunday; the custom therefore seems to be a survival of primitive ritual.



FIG. 26. *Some Albanian Women*



FIG. 27. *Some Albanian Men*

MODE OF LIFE

The simplest peasant huts have walls of wood or earth and thatched roofs; they contain a single room with central hearth. Smoke escapes, and light enters, by the doorway, or at loopholes high in the wall. Some Vlachs build huts of wattle or reeds. Better houses have an inner room. On hill-sides a partly excavated basement acts as stable and storeroom, and there is an outside stair. Sleeping-bunks and couches are built into the walls; a low ceiling under the gable roof serves as floor to a loft, with access by ladder. For a Moslem household the main story is partitioned into *selamlik* and *haremlik*. A kitchen and oven in the basement, or in a lean-to shed, leave the living-rooms to be heated by a central hearth or brazier. Internal stairs are rare outside the towns, except in the fortified *kullë*-houses of several stories peculiar to some tribes. A few rich *beys* have built unfortified country houses, of Turkish, Greek, or Italian design. Public buildings are of European style, except for a few Turkish *konaks* with a hall-of-audience and side rooms.

The staple food is maize, pounded or ground, sometimes mixed with wheat or barley, or replaced by them. Unleavened cakes are baked on the hearth-stone or in an external oven. Porridge and soup are enriched with beans, lentils, rice, eggs, and occasional fowls and meat. Lamb and kid are roasted whole or boiled with potatoes. Sweetmeats are made of rice, milk, and honey and flavoured with raisins, almonds, and other dried fruits or nuts. Raw-spirit (*raki*) is more popular than wine. Coffee is made in Turkish fashion on all occasions.

Meals are served on a low table, in a single bowl or platter, round which the men sit on the ground, while the women wait, and eat what is left. The host carves and distributes meat, but otherwise each helps himself with his hands. Tobacco smoking is general. Entertainments are music, song, dancing, stories old and new, and there is much gambling.

Transport is by asses, mules, and a few horses, with wooden pack-saddles for goods and travellers alike. Some carts still have solid wheels, but lighter Italian *carrozze* have become common in the lowlands, and there are a few motor-cars.

Home industries include basketry, woodwork with superficial chip-carving, spinning, knitting, and weaving of rough cloth and, locally, of carpets and rugs. Skins are sent to be tanned in the towns, and most leather-work is a distinct occupation. There are local

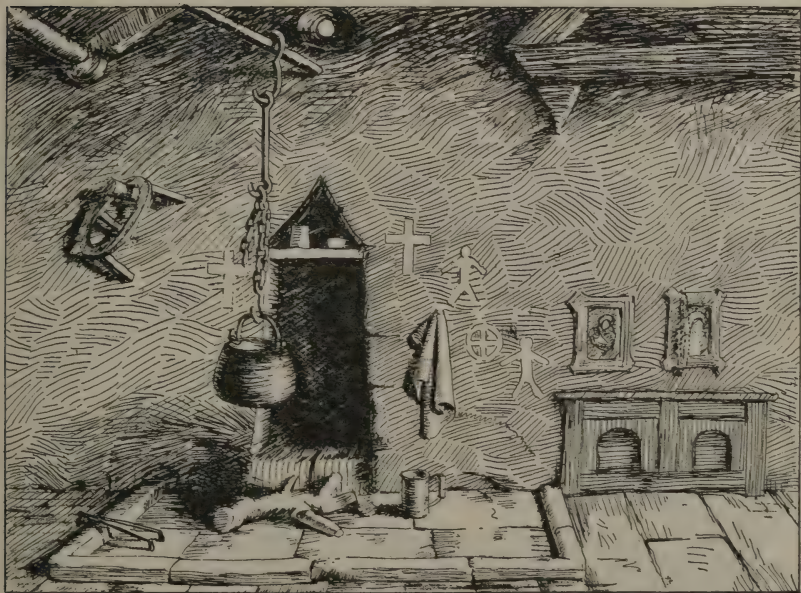
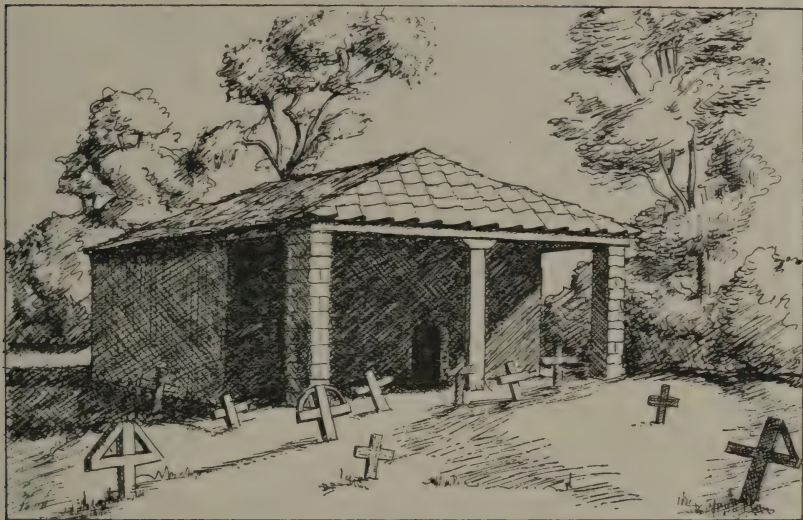


FIG. 28. *A Church in the Northern Highlands and the Interior of a Living Room*

potters where clay is suitable, and coppersmiths and tinsmiths in the towns.

THE TOWNS

The towns of Albania are few and ill developed, for lack of communications restricts both trade and industry, and there are but few districts capable of maintaining a large population. Hence, on the other hand, the perennial importance of Scutari, Lesh, Tirana, Durazzo, Elbasan, Korçë, Berat, Tepelenë, Valona, Gjinokastër, Delvinë, and of Peshkopi as substitute for Debar beyond the recent frontier. The very different surroundings of these centres has favoured exchange of commodities between them. All alike are essentially bazaars, usually protected by a fortress, and dealing in local products of pastoral and agricultural life. They have also characteristic industries—weapons and other metal-work, including inlay and filigree; with woodwork, leather-work, silk, and embroideries, while textiles are a peasant industry. They hold the reserves of foodstuffs, wool, and leather, and of manufactured imports. They maintain periodical markets and fairs, and their guest-houses (*hans*), cafés, and barbers' shops distribute news and collect opinions. Round their public buildings, mosques, churches, and baths, stand the dwellings of officials, merchants, and landowners, often in gardens and orchards with high walls and many cypresses. The older houses are timber-framed, with warehouse and stable below, and commodious guest-room above. Streets were irregular, ill paved, and ill kept until quite recently. There is no drainage, and water-supply is limited to private wells and cisterns and a few public fountains, usually benefactions. Only Tirana, Durazzo, and Valona have been partially rebuilt or provided with residential suburbs of European layout.

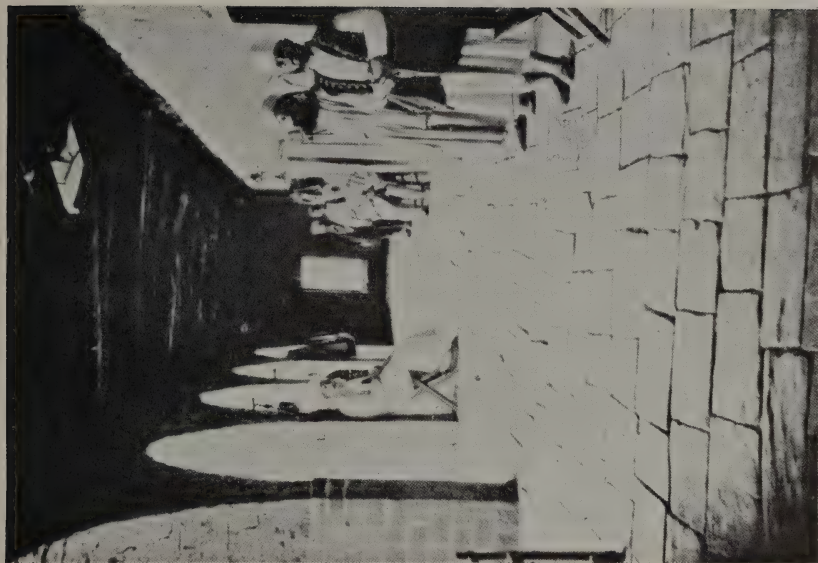
DOMESTIC WATER-SUPPLY

Natural or privately owned

Streams usually flow either in longitudinal valleys between the outcrops of rocks, with flood-plains filled with gravel and alluvium, wells in the valley floor, and springs along outcrop lines on the mountain sides; or transversely in deep gorges which sometimes tap deep-seated water-supplies. Streams traversing limestone districts sometimes disappear into swallow-holes, reappearing lower down the valley from a cavern. Albanian rivers are usually perennial, being supplied with spring rains and snow water from the mountains during the dry season. Their waters are usually pure, though often hard; but may



98. The Bektash 'Baba' of the Prishtë Teqe



99. Inside the Teqe of Prishtë



100. King Zog's son and heir in Albanian dress



101. A woman of Vuno

be contaminated locally and in the hot weather. But the stream is often over-deepened and inaccessible. At Gjinokastër the Vjosë has so deep a bed that the town on its bank depends on cisterns.

Cisterns are built in waterless districts, to store surface-water: they are circular domed structures of masonry, partly excavated and lined with cement. Their supply is precarious, and liable to contamination by dead animals. In the lowlands many houses have cistern-storage for rain-water from the roofs. On the high pasture, winter snow is stored in pits and natural hollows, covered with straw, for summer use of the flocks. In some districts drinking-water is carried far and stored in kegs, and skim-milk is used for other domestic purposes.

Wells sunk by local craftsmen are stone-lined, and sometimes as much as 200 feet deep. Water is raised by windlass and should be boiled before drinking. Wells near the sea reach water at about sea-level, and are frequently fresh quite close to the beach. They are sometimes fed by underground streams which issue below sea-level.

Albanian peasants are usually good judges of water, and proud of famous springs and wells.

Public Supplies

Public supplies are rudimentary. Italian aqueduct-projects are reported for Durazzo, Tirana (with a dam across the Lum i Tiranës), Berat, Gjinokastër, and Valona. Sarandë has a pipe fed from a reservoir filled by pumping from wells.

Most towns are short of water in the summer. Elbasan, Korçë, and Scutari are, probably, the least ill supplied.

As a rule town-dwellers rely upon their own wells, but there are public wells reserved for drinking-water, and fountains supplied from springs.

B. THE NORTHERN TRIBES

Notes

1. *Names of Tribes* are given in the definite form, followed, in brackets, by the indefinite where known.
2. The *index numbers* given in brackets before or after tribal names are those used in Fig. 29.
3. The *census numbers* are the latest available for each tribe; but where authorities differ widely, both numbers are given. The size of a 'house' varies from tribe to tribe; in Thethi it is from 30 to 40 persons, as in the Serbian *Zadruga*; more commonly, as the totals show, it is from 5 to 10 persons, but often including, for security,

sons-in-law, widows, and professed 'virgins' as well as offspring of the house-father. The tribal areas of Albania are estimated to hold about 160,000 fighting men, representing a total population of about 800,000.

Tribal, or Group, Names

(1) ARRNJI, a tribe or clan in the Arrn district of Luma, said to be an offshoot of Berisha, but wholly Moslem. It is sometimes reckoned to Luma, sometimes to Dibra. The women wear Mirdita dress, and many are from Mirdita.¹

(2) BERISHA (Berishë): 2,300; a *bajrak* of Dukagjin, all Christian: in the narrow steep-sided Sapaç valley as far as the left bank of the Drin, and thence along the Drin opposite to Dushmani and Toplana.

Villages: (l. of Sapaç) Tmug, Skvinë, Millë; (r. of Sapaç) Lëvosh, Quqesh, Milor, Brebullë; Bushat on Rvisht tributary of the Gominë.

This tribe has pedigrees from A.D. 1270 and no Slav names, though it is said to have come from Bosnia in the fifteenth century. Merturi is an offshoot, and there are Berisha villages north of the Drin about Vau i Dardhës. Others have emigrated, especially towards Jakova (*Serb.* Đakovica), to the north-west of which are many Berisha villages. Many have become Moslem. Arrnji is another offshoot of Berisha and is wholly Moslem.

(3) BESHKASHI (Beshkash): 2,800 (150 houses); one *bajrak*; 1,900 Catholics, 900 Moslems (only in Bazë): bounded north by the Mat river and Kthella territory; east and south-east by the Karicë; west and south-west by the Beshkash range.

Villages: Stojan, Bri (church), Hotaj, Bazë (Beshkash church), Shtog, Kokërllok. The former Beshkash villages Karicë (Karitza) and Gërman now belong to Matja, and some Beshkash people have settled on leasehold lands in Matja. Locally Beshkashi, Selita, and Kthella are the 'three *bajraks* of Ohri i vogël'.

Beshkash is one of the poorest clans of Albania. There is little cultivation, and much thieving from the lowland.

(4) BOGA (Bogë): a *bajrak* of Kelmendi (29) in the north headwaters of Prroni i thatë; bounded north by Nikçi; east by Thethi; south by Shala, Gimaj, Shkreli; west by Kastrati. Village: Bogë (sometimes called Precaj).

¹ In Albania intermarriage between Catholics and Moslems is frequent, and is held to the credit of the bridegroom.

(5) BOKSI (Boks): a tribe and *bajrak* of Postriba group north-east of Scutari: bounded north by Rrjoll and Suma; east by Drishti and Shllaku; south and west by the lowland.

Villages: Boks (Kodër e Boksit), also administrative centre for Drisht, Sumë, and Rrjoll.

(6) BUGJONI (Bugjon): a *bajrak* of Thaçi.

(7) BULGËRI (Bulgër): a clan of the Malsi e Leshit territory, on the left bank of the Fan river from the junction of its main streams to its confluence with the Mat; also on the right bank from the Rrubig stream to the Mat and beyond.

Villages: *On the right bank*, Rrasfik, Bërzanë (Murzan), Bulgër (120), Bulgëri Katund. *On the left bank*, Kulla e Bulgërit (church) and Fang.

(8) BUZA E UJIT (Buzë e Ujit) (800-960), one *bajrak*; two-thirds Catholic, one-third Moslem, a few Orthodox: in the angle between the Liqen i Hotit and Lake Scutari, including the lower Prroni i thatë valley: bounded north-east by Kastrati and south-east by Kopliku.

Villages: Jubicë (Lubica), Flakë, Kamicë (Kamenicë). This clan came from the Podgorica district of Montenegro, but speaks Albanian.

(9) BYTYÇI (Bytyç) (300 houses): in the upper Krumë valley and the mountains westward towards the Valbonë: bounded west by Gashi and Krasniqi (forming the Malsi e Jakovës, i.e. Jakova highland) and south by Hasi. There are several villages in a rich plain enclosed by low hills: Vlad has 174 inhabitants and a police post. Bytyçi have a high reputation for courage. The main track from Scutari to Jakova enters Bytyçi district over the Q. e Luzhës and leaves it over the Q. e Gjonit. Jakova, though founded from Berisha-Merturi, is occupied by Bytyçi, Krasniqi, Gashi, and Hasi people. There were no Serbs here before annexation to Serbia, except a few families in Đakovica town, and the Albanian population was deliberately devastated in 1913.

(10) DIBRA (Dibër) (12,500 Moslems) is a general term for the group of tribes of the Black Drin and its tributaries south of the Lumë tribe, and north of the entry of the Drin into Albanian territory south of Debar town, which is in Yugoslavia; the districts of Dibra e sipërme (upper) and Dibra e poshtëme (lower) lying north and south of Peshkopi. The northern district west of the Drin is called Mali

i zi, and is inhabited by the tribe of that name. Tribes in Dibra are Luznija (40), Homeshi (23), Kastrioti (28), Mali i zi (41), Muhurri (47), Ploshtani (52), Reç Dardha (57), and Trojaku (72); Arnji is independent, but see above. But the areas around Debar town, and north of it, have lost their tribal organization through Serb influence. Dibra e poshtëme district and Mali i zi are Moslem; in Dibra e sipërme Christians and Moslems are mixed. The tribesmen speak Albanian, but there have been Serbian immigrants. The whole district is backward, and suffered from 1913 to 1939 by separation from its economic centre, Debar. It provides the best builders in Albania.

Like Matja, Dibra was part of the dominion of Skanderbeg and the fanatical 'tigers of Dibra' include Lura and Matja tribes.

(11) DIBRI (Dibër) (600 families) occupies the western district of Mirditë. It has its name from Dibër river, which rises east of M. i Kreshtës, in a narrow valley, and is joined by small streams from Kashnjet and Shëngjergj villages. It flows into the Fan i madh above its junction with the Fan i vogël.

Villages: Fregënë, Ungrej (church), Kaluer, Kashnjet (church and *bajraktar*), Sukaxhi, Gazu, Shëngjergj (church).

Dibri also occupies the upper Gjadër valley, a tributary of the Drin bounded west by M. i Kreshtës and M. i Shëmililit (Shitë e Hajmelit), and east by M. i bardhë towards the Gomsiqe valley.

Villages: Vrrith, Kaftall, Kastër e epërme and e poshtëme (at junction of Vomë and Gjadër), Kalivaç, Vig (church). Other villages are Kaçinar (Shperdhâzë valley), Korthpulë (Gomsiqe valley). But Mnelë (with church), Shën Kollë (Qendra e Priftit Mnelës), and Shën Rrok (another church) are occupied by Spaçi.

(12) DRISHTI (Drisht) is a *bajrak* of the Postriba (53) group or district. It is almost entirely Moslem and occupies the lower Kir valley and the south slopes of Maranaj: it is bounded east by the Prekal district of Shoshi and by Shllaku; north by Suma; and west by Boksi. The administrative centre is at Boks. Drisht village (destroyed by Montenegrins 1913) is 5 miles north-east of Scutari.

Villages: Drisht, Mes, Myselim, Domën.

Drishti, Mazrek village, Suma, Shllaku, Temali, and Dushmani, are now all in Pulti diocese, but Drishti had a bishop in A.D. 877. Shllaku, and Mazrek village, are still Catholic, and the name Myselim marks a stage in the infiltration of Moslems among Drishti.

(13) **DUKAGJINI** (Dukagjin): the term is used in four senses:

- i. A clan of three *bajraks* (9,000–11,000), half Catholic, half Moslem: their chief occupation is cattle-breeding.
- ii. A group-name for the 'tribe of the six *bajraks*' (Fis i gjasht bajrakvet), including Pulti (Pulati), Shala, Shoshi, Dushmani, Toplana, Nikaj, Merturi. Shala and Shoshi call themselves Dukagjini because they believe that they came from south of the Drin.
- iii. The administrative district of the 'seven *bajraks*', Qerreti, Puka, Kabashi, Berisha, Bugjoni, Iballja, Mali i zi, occupying the highlands enclosed in the great bend of the Drin, as far south as Mirdita: bounded north by the Drin; south-east by Luma; south by Mirdita; and west by Zadrina. Population 16,300 (Catholics 10,900, Moslems 5,400). Under Ottoman rule the administrative centre was Pukë. Mali i zi is popularly included in Dibra.
- iv. The whole country between the Drin and Mirdita, occupied by Kabashi, Thaçi (including Iballja and Bugjoni), as well as Dukagjini.

(14) **DUSHMANI**, *see* Temali (67).

(15) **FANDI** (Fondi in Kosovë province) (420 families), a Mirditë clan, occupies the upper Fan i vogël (Fan i Fandit) from its source between Qafë e Kumbullës and Munella; and also the headwaters of the Serriqe, a tributary of the Drin: bounded north by Spaçi; east by Mali i zi and Luma; south by Reç Dardha, Lura, and Oroshi; west by Kushneni, and Spaçi.

Villages: Mzhan, below the Qafë e Kumbullës, Domgjon, Bisakë e epër, Bisakë e poshtëme (church); on the river and valley slopes Gjurgjë (Xhuxhë), Shëngjin, Konaj.

The district has little arable, but some pitch is won from the forests. Poverty is severe, and emigration frequent to Peć (Ipek), Đakovica, and Prizren, where Fandi groups remain Catholic among a Moslem population, and are feared for their courage and personal pride. They buy no land, and own only cattle and goods, so that they may escape in time of trouble. Fandi, like Dibri, may marry with the three other *bajraks* of Mirdita.

(16) **GASHI** (Gash) (4,000; 800 houses; 800 armed men in 1908: Moslem, but formerly Catholics) occupies the north-east slopes of the Valbonë valley, and both banks of Lum i Tropojës, a tributary of the Bistricë: bounded north-east by Yugoslavia; south by Bytyçi; west

by Krasniqi; but it has pastures north of the mountain east of Vuthaj. It has two *bajraks*, Gashi and Shipshani, and is said to be an offshoot of Toplana.

Villages: Ahmetaj at foot of Shkëlzen; Tropojë north of Ahmetaj, Mejdan south of L. i Tropojës; Shipshan, Bob, Berbat, and Begaj west of Ahmetaj; Kacaj, Luzhë. Vorret e Shalës ('Shalë graves'), on the ridge between Valbonë and L. i Tropojës, is not a village but a meeting-place of Gashi and Krasniqi.

With Krasniqi and Bytyçi, Gashi occupy the Malsi e Jakovës (Jakova Highland). They are reputed to be rich, and Gashi and Krasniqi lands are the best in North Albania.

(17) GIMAJ: a *bajrak* of Shala (61).

(18) GORA (Gorë): a tribe closely associated with Luma (38): bounded west by Luma; south by Ploshtani; and eastward a large part of this tribe is in Yugoslavia.

(19) GRIZHA (Grizhë) and (21) GRUEMIRA (Gruemirë) (900 with 75 houses mostly Moslem), one *bajrak*, are included in Kopliku on the north bank of the Rrjoll where it reaches the plain of Scutari: bounded north by Kastrati and Rrjolli, though some unite it with Rrjolli; south by Shkodër (Scutari town district). Each has one village. The district is stony and barren, but produces the best lime in Albania.

(20) GRUDA (Grudë) (2,200–2,500), one *bajrak*; over half Moslem, the rest Catholic; occupies both slopes of the lower Cem valley. There are also the villages of Grudë e ré and Grudë e keqe on the left bank of the lower Rrjoll. Gruda is of mixed origin. The Berishë stock is indigenous; the Rrjoll came from Herzegovina after the Turkish conquest (early 16th century). Gruda formerly included Triepshi, which was awarded to Montenegro in 1913; Gruda resisted and was devastated; being partly Catholic, partly Moslem, it was mishandled again by Orthodox Serbs after their union with Montenegro (1921). The names of places in Yugoslavia are in Serbian form.

Villages: *on right bank of the Cem*, Selište (upper and lower), Lofka, Stano (Stanaj), Dinoši (1,200 Moslems, 20 Catholics), Prifti (church), Pikale, Kala; *on the left bank*, Kurec (Korach), Krševa, Hajaj, Mileši (Moslem), Vladnja (partly Orthodox), Vulait, Tuzi, Vranj, Mataguži.

Cattle are bred, and there is some cultivation, but this is one of the poorest tribes.

(22) **HASI** (Has) (4,900: 600–1,000 houses) occupies the left bank of the Lum i Krumës tributary of the Drin, and the country round Mal i Pushtrikut (Paštrik) west of the White Drin as far as Đakovica: bounded north-west by Krasniqi and Bytyçi; east by Luma (who are Moslem) beyond the White Drin (*see also* Kruma *below*). Very little is known of the country, but it has 50 villages with 2,400 Serbian-speaking Moslems, 1,550 Albanian-speaking Moslems, 750 Catholic, and 200 Orthodox.

(23) **HOMESHI** (Homesh): a tribe in Dibra group, occupying the slopes of M. i Homeshit, and bounded north by Luznija; east by Muhurri and beyond the Drin by Yugoslavia; south by the barren Gollobordë plateau; west by Matja.

(24) **HOTI** (Hot) (2,500–4,000): Catholic except for 30–50 Moslems. Two groups speak Serbian and are Orthodox; of two Albanian-speaking groups one is Catholic, one Moslem. Two *bajraks*, Rapshë and Trabojna (some add Brigjë). Hoti is bounded north-west by Montenegro; north-east by Gruda and Kelmendi (Nikçi); south-east by Kastrati; south by Buza e Ujit, the Liqen i Hotit, and the Kushaj valley; west by the plain of the Cem in Montenegro.

Districts: Rapshë (250 houses, 3 Moslem); Trabojna (in Montenegro till 1941); Brigjë (church), all between Arza and the north-east slopes of M. i Hotit, which divides Rapshë from Gruda.

Hoti tribes are occupied in cattle-breeding, agriculture, and fishing. Their Rapshë plateau has fertile meadows, and is the richest land in the Hot territory. Till 1913 they had winter pastures in the Boyana lowland, of which the frontier award deprived them; these were restored temporarily in 1941. They came from Bosnia, where they fought the Turks in 1474; but some are *anas* (aborigines), as are the Piperi and Vasojevići who settled in Montenegro in the eighteenth century. They are akin to Nikaj, and to the Moslem Krasniqi east of Shala, but usually intermarry with Kastrati. Hoti led Albanian resistance to Montenegrin annexation (1878).

(25) **IBALLJA** (Iballe) (848): lies in a highland basin draining west to the Drin, and has an important village, with some Moslem families and a mosque. Iballja is a *bajrak* of Thaçi (68).

(26) **KABASHI** (Kabash) (2,000; more than half Catholic, the rest Moslem), a *bajrak* of Dukagjin (13), occupies the Gominë valley

from Suka e Pukës to the Drin: bounded north by Iballja; east by Spaçi (Mirdita); south and west by Puka.

Villages: *left bank*, Lejthizë, Dedaj, Ukth, Buzhalë; *right bank*, Kabash, Qelëz (church), Dushnesht, Lëvrushk.

(27) KASTRATI (Kastrat) (2,700 in 1938: 550-950 armed men): Catholics except about 20 Moslems; one or two *bajraks*; occupies both mountain and plain, north of Lake Scutari and north-east of the upper Liqen i Hotit (Viri Kastratit): bounded north-west by Hoti; north-east by Kelmendi; south-east by Shkreli; and south by Drishti.

Villages: *in mountains*, Bratosh and seven hamlets round the church; Vukivanaj, Çulaj, Gashaj, Vukpalaj-Kastrat; *in plain*, Kolaj, Ivanaj, Aliaj, Pjetrosan, Kosan (Kasani), Gradec, Vuçvukaj, Mokset.

Kastrati are akin to Berisha, but include Slav groups which now speak Albanian. All may intermarry. They practise agriculture and fishing. They are divided into families rather than villages, living in clustered houses on the farms. They are the leading group among the southern highlanders, as Hoti among the northern.

(28) KASTRIOTI (Kastriot, distinct from Kastrati): a tribe in Dibra e sipërme east of the Black Drin: bounded north by Trojaku; east and south by Peshkopi district; west by Muhurri across the Drin.

(29) KELMENDI (Kelmend; often written Klementi) (3,350-4,550), Catholic except for 50-100 Moslems; a group of four *bajraks*, Boga (4), Nikçi (49), Vermoshi (75), Vukli (76): Kočan and Koman are also, by origin, Kelmend folk: bounded north-west and north-east by Montenegro; south-east by Thethi, Shala, Gimaj; south-west by Shkreli, Kastrati, and Hoti.

Kelmendi came from the north 13 generations ago (c. A.D. 1500), a very intelligent and warlike tribe, wholly engaged in breeding cattle and horses in the most sterile district of Albania. They share winter pastures on M. i Rrëncit with Rjollli and Shkreli. From 1913 to 1941 they suffered loss of pastures by frontier delimitation.

Kelmend tribes now in Montenegro

Kočani (Kočan), in Montenegro till 1941 (450-700), claim to be originally a *bajrak* of Kelmendi, Catholic and bilingual; east of Podgorica, north of Triepši, and bounded by Orahovo, Triepši, Fundina, and Medun. Villages: Nutzuli, Marti, Gorgog; and shepherd-huts at Brak i Sumatarit between

Radeca-Velja and Kostica. The Kočan are shepherds, as their lands are too stony for cultivation. In summer they feed their flocks on the east slopes of M. e Zhihovës in Montenegro.

Koman: a Catholic tribe or *bajrak*. The name also occurs near Podgorica in Montenegro.

(30) KIRI (Kir): a village (perhaps a *bajrak* or tribe) in the Pult country on the left bank of the Kir river.

(31) KOPLIKU (Koplik) (2,500–3,000: 500–600 armed men: 800–1,000 Catholics, 1,500–1,800 Moslems, 400 Orthodox), three *bajraks*: Koplik i sipërm (most numerous and important); Koplik i poshtëm; Grizhë-Gruemirë, occupying the north-east shore of Lake Scutari. Bounded north by Kastrati and Rrjoll; south by the lowland of Scutari; north-west by Prroni i thatë from the mountains to the lake. Farming is the chief occupation. Orthodox Serb refugees from the north occupy the villages Boriç, Vrakë, Stërbicë, and Kalldrun, and there are other Serb place-names in the district.

(32) KRASNIQI (Krasniq) (2,800–3,400: 650 armed men), one *bajrak*; Moslems, except about 140–170 Catholics: a prosperous clan in the upper Valbonë valley and east slopes of Malet e Krasniqes: said also to own high pastures on the south slopes overlooking the Curraj valley, and as far as the Lum i Currajt which divides Krasniqi from Nikaj: bounded north by Yugoslavia; east by Gashi and Bytyçi; south by Iballja; west by Nikaj, Merturi, and Bugjoni.

Villages: Noaj (bridge over Valbonë), Kolmeshaj, Kolgecaj (bridge), Buhal, Markaj, Bunjaj, Fang (Mulosmanaj), Gri, Degë, Ponar, Dushaj, Domish, Geg-Hysen, Selimaj in the Dragobi valley.

(33) KRUMA (Krumë): a tribe or *bajrak* of Malsija e Jakovës, in the valley of the Krumë tributary of the Drin: bounded north by Bytyçi; east by the Đakova district of Yugoslavia; south by the White Drin and Yugoslavia; west by the Black Drin, beyond which lie Luma, Mali i zi, and Iballja. The name has been applied to the part of Hasi which was in Albania before 1941.

(34) KRYEZEZI (Kryezëz) (820): a *bajrak* in the Malsi e Leshit, occupying the west slopes of the Fan valley, from the junction of the two Fan streams to Prroni i Rrubigut and also the small plain of the Rrejë tributary: bounded north by Dibri and east by Kushneni; south by Bulgëri; west by Bregu i Matit.

Villages: Kryezëz (church), Rrubig (Franciscan monastery). At Kisha e Shelbumit is a church with fine frescoes.

(35) KTHELLA (Kthellë) (2,700: 300 houses): Catholic, occupies the Zall i Shebjës and Lysa Lis valleys, between the left bank of the Fan river and the right bank of the Mat: bounded north by the Orosh *bajrak* of Mirdita; east by Selita; south by the Mat; west by Kulm i Dervenit, which is the frontier between Kthella and Bulgëri. It occupies also the Smjë e vogël, Smjë e madhe, and Loze valleys.

Villages: Kthellë e epër, Kamec (church), Shtanë, Rrshen (church), Shebaj, Malaj, Prosek, Perlat (church), Lurth, Yexull.

Kthella, Selita, and Beshkashi south of the Mat are locally described as the 'three *bajraks* of Ohri i vogël' (Catholics 6,600: Moslems 1,400). Kthella has little pasture, and in summer its flocks are pastured outside the district, on M. i Shenjt and Majë e Kunorës. Maize is the chief crop, but tobacco is grown; and when crops fail, Kthella plunders the lowland. Kthella, with Mirdita, leads the tribes in war to the southward, as Hoti does to the north.

(36) KUSHNENI (Kushnen) (110 families, all Catholic), a *bajrak* of Mirdita, occupies the middle valley of the Fan i madh (Fan i Gojanit), the right bank of the Fan i vogël (Fan i Fandit), and the Shperdhâzë valley.

Villages: *Fan i madh valley*: Gjegjan, Kushnen, Shperdhâzë, Peshtjesh, Ndërfanë (church). *Fan i vogël valley*: Blinisht (church). *Shperdhâzë valley*: Simon, Bukëmirë, Munegë.

Moulds for casting shot are made in this district.

(37) LOHJA and REÇI (Lohe: Reç): a *bajrak* occupying the eastern headwaters of Prroni i Banushit: bounded north by Shkreli; east by Rrjoll; south by Lake Scutari; west by Kastrati and non-tribal territory towards Drishti. These people are of mixed stock, mainly from Pulti and Shllaku, and were originally all Catholics: now they are mainly Moslems; some Reçi are aboriginal *anas*. From time to time they have been dependent on Rrjoll.

Villages: Lohe (mosque, 80 Moslem houses, 40 Christian houses), Reç (church, 35 Catholic houses), Kurtë, Bukmirë (1,200 persons, 180 houses in all).

They share the winter pastures of M. i Rrëncit, on the coast, with Shkreli, Rrjoll, and Kelmendi.

(38) LUMA (Lumë) (35,000; 7,000 armed men); including the *bajraks* of Bica, Ploshtan, and Zhuri, though some regard Ploshtan as a separate tribe: formerly a very large and strong tribe, Moslem and fanatical; occupies the Lumë valley and the Black Drin from the Veleshicë to the White Drin confluence: bounded north by Kruma,

Hasi, and Mali i zi; east by Kosovo district of Serbia and by Gora; south by Ploshtan and Reç Dardha; west by Fandi (Mirditë). Arrn (see Arrnji) and Surroj seem to belong to Luma.

Villages: Bicaj (chief centre), Kalis (Klyeshe), Ceren, Ploshtan, Dodaj, Shullan, Vilë, Bushticë, Lusenë, Ujmishtë, Surroj, Arrn, Kolesjan, Nangë, Shtiqën, Podbreg, Bardhoc, Morinë, Vrbnica, Shtrezë, Topojan, Nimçë, Lojmë, Brekinjë, Xhafereve.

Luma and Gora, with offshoots of Shala and Mirdita, constitute the Prizren group of tribes, devastated by the Serbs in 1912-1913 and partly under Yugoslav rule in 1939: since temporarily restored to Albania.

(39) LURA (Lurë): until 1908 this tribe numbered about 2,000, Catholics with the exception of 22 Moslem families. Now it numbers 5,600, of whom only 200 are Catholics; four *bajraks* (Lurë, Dardhë, Çidhnë, Reç): occupies the headwaters of Zall i Milthit and Mollë e Lurës down to the Drin: bounded north by Mirditë groups, Fandi, Luma, and Oroshi; east by the Drin and Muhurri; south by Matja; west by Kthella. Lura is one of the Dibra group of tribes: formerly it intermarried with Mirdita, but now with Matja and Dibra, which are Moslem. It belonged formerly to Dukagjin and supported Skanderbeg.

Villages: Fushë e Lurës, Katund i vjetër (or Lurë e vjetër), Barë, Krêjë e Lurës, Pregjë, Vlashaj, Arras, Sumaj i Lurës, Reç, Gurrë e Reçit, Arrenmollë e Lurës, Domaj. Arrn (see Arrnji) and Surroj belong rather to Luma than to Lura.

There is a church in Lurë e vjetër; a disused Catholic chapel and a mosque in Fushë e Lurës. Near Krêjë e Lurës the church of S. Antony is used once a year. Between Krêjë and Lura the forest of great pines belongs to the Lurë church, and is venerated also by Moslems. Catholicism is decreasing. Cattle-breeding is the chief occupation, but maize and tobacco are cultivated. Formerly the market for Lura was Debar.

(40) LUZNIJA (Luznijë): a tribe bounded north by the Muhurri; east by the Drin and the district of Peshkopi; south by Homeshi; and and west by Matja.

(41) MALI I ZI (or 'black mountain') group; (3,000; all Moslems): in the district of Dibra but west of the Drin, and administratively under Puka. It occupies the Serriqe valley from Munella to the Drin, and also the slopes of Majë e Runës and Qafë e Kumbullës from Ura e Vezirit to Ura e Spaçit, and joining Fandi *bajrak* of Mirdita on

Qafë e Kumbullës pass: bounded north-west by Iballja; north-east by Kruma (Hasi); south-east by Luma; south-west by Spaçi (Mirdita).

Villages: Shëmri, Petkaj, Shtanë, Dukagjin, Shikaj (*bajraktar*), Kryemadhë, Barboçorët.

Of recent times the men have gone to Greece in winter as agricultural labourers, remaining six months and earning £6-£8.

(42) MANATIJA (Manati) (100 houses), a *bajrak* of Malsija e Leshit, occupies the hills between the Fan valley and the coast plain, and comes down to Lesh. The chief village is Manati.

(43) MAQELLARA (Maqellarë) a tribe bounded east and south by the Yugoslav frontier, west by the Black Drin below Bllatë, and north by the district of Peshkopi.

(44) MATJA (Matjë) (40,000 inclusive; 5,000-6,000 houses; 5,500 armed men), six *bajraks*: Burrel, Klos, Lis, Lukan, Prell, Xibër, mostly Moslem: occupies the upper left bank of the Mat river, down to the coast plain; bounded to north by the Karicë stream on the left bank of the Mat. On the right bank the boundary runs from the stream to Dêja e Macukullit; on the west by the Mal i Skanderbeut watershed between the Mat and the Drojë, Lum i Zezës, Lum i Turkuzës (Zall i Herrit), and Lum i Tiranës (Riçlata), with two passes, (a) Qafë e Bejlikut to north along the north bank of the Zall i Gërmanit (Lysa e Kamsijës) and (b) Q. e Shtambës to south from the Zall i Gërmanit to the L. i Zezës. Farther south the Q. e Murrizës leads to Tirana. The east boundary is the watershed between Mat and Black Drin.

Matja is a member of the Dibra group with Lura and Dibra. It has four subdivisions (*semt*): (a) Zogolli (Zogoly), in the north, on the right bank of the Mat, with its *saraj* (Turk. *serai* = residence of the feudal *bey*-family) fortified on a hill near Burgajet and Lis; (b) Allamani (*saraj* at Kurdari); (c) Çelaj (*saraj* at Patin); (d) Bojich (Bozhiq; *saraj* at Klos): The four *bey*-families and a few others, are rich, and live in kula-houses (Alb. *kullë*) of two or three stories with thick stone walls 40-50 feet high. The rest of the inhabitants are peasants, very poor, rough-mannered, and predatory, though the basin is fertile, well wooded, and extensively cultivated with maize and tobacco; but it needs roads for the disposal of produce. Some vines are grown for wine. The most important family is Zogolli, of which King Zog is the hereditary chief. With better education, feuds are rarer and more easily appeased. Burrel, the gendarme-headquarters, is becoming a prosperous centre, with roads to Krujë and to Milot.

(45) MERTURI (Mertur) (3,500-4,200), one *bajrak*, all Catholic except for 100-200 Moslems: occupies both banks of the Drin at its northern bend from the Lum i Merturit to the Valbonë: bounded north-west by Nikaj; north-east by Krasniqi; south by Bugjoni; west by Shoshi and Toplana. The former members on the left bank of the Drin have joined the Bugjon section of the Thaç clan.

Villages: *Lumi i Nikajt*: Betosh, Shëngjergj (*bajraktar*); *Lumi i Nikajt to Valbonë*: Markaj, Tetaj, Rajë (church); *right bank of Drin below Lumi i Nikajt*: Kotec, Palcë, Salcë (old church), Brincë on a fertile terrace above the Drin, prosperous; *left bank of Drin*: Apripë e Gurit, Mertur i Gurit.

Like the Berishë, the Mertur seem to have come from Bosnia in the fifteenth century; a tall, fair, blue-eyed strain among short, dark aborigines.

(46) MIRDITA (Mirditë, colloquial Mërdita): the name of the district south of Pukë occupied by the old *bajraks* of Kushneni (36), Oroshi (50), and Spaçi (65) and the new ones of Dibri (11) and Fandi (15). Population 17,000-20,000: 5,000 in the *kapidan*'s own clan: 7,000 armed men. All are Catholics and of a distinct physical type. The *bajraks* of Beshkashi (3), Kthella (35), and Selita (60) are sometimes reckoned to Mirdita. Fandi and Dibri may marry with the other three, being less closely related: they came at the Ottoman invasion from Mal i Pushtrikut between the Black and White Drin. Fandi and Dibri are said to be aboriginal. This district includes the Fan i madh and Fan i vogël valleys with their tributaries Shperdhâzë and Dibër, except the lower reaches which are in Kthella and Malsi e Leshit territory, and the right bank of the Fan i madh which is held by Kabashi: also the upper Gomsiqe and Gjadër. Bounded on the north by Qerreti, Puka, Kabashi, Iballja; east by Mali i zi, Luma, Reç Dardha; on south by Kthella and Lura; west by Bulgëri, Kryezezi, Manatija, Zadrima. All except two parishes are in Lesh (Alessio) diocese, but Mnelë and Vig are in that of Zadrima.

A mitred abbot holds the large abbey (Abacija e Oroshit) outside Orosh village, on the left bank of the Fan i vogël. His jurisdiction is independent of the Bishop of Lesh. On the ridge between the two Fan rivers near the road from Scutari to Orosh is the church of St. Paul (Kisha e Palit) where all Mirdita clans hold their spring council. The administrative centre is at Blinisht close by.

Mirdita is well wooded with beech, larch, and fir, and the soil is fertile. Cattle-breeding and agriculture are practised, but the people,

ignorant and idle, are ill fed and addicted to brigandage in the plains and on the Scutari-Prizren road. Vines are grown in south Mirdita; the best wine is made at Orosh and Gojan, and by the Spaç.

Mirdita with Kthella leads the tribes of the whole highland in war to southward, as Hoti does to the north. The Mirditë tribes never accepted Ottoman rule, remained Catholic, and paid only nominal tribute. For the great Mirditë leader Lek Dukagjin *see* p. 134, and for Skanderbeg p. 183. The present line of Mirdita chiefs descends from Marka Gjon, *kapidan* in 1700. In the nineteenth century, though Kol Prenk had served the Sultan against the Russians (1829), Bib Doda planned a revolt and was assassinated (1868). His son Prenk was neutral in the Montenegrin war (1876), but was suspected and attacked by the Turks. He took a leading part in the Albanian League (1875), but was interned from 1881 to 1908, when his restoration was the Mirditë condition for accepting the Sultan's 'constitution'. Nevertheless, there were risings in 1911 and 1912. Prenk planned a Mirditë republic, with Serbian help, repulsed Essad Pasha in 1914, and became vice-premier in the provisional government of 1918. He was killed through a feud in 1920. His successor Marka Gjon refused office and revived the project of a Mirditë state; but most of the tribes remained loyal to the Government at Tirana (1921). As long as Ahmed Zogu was supported by Yugoslavia, Marka Gjon joined him, but without adequate reward, and thereafter revived the ancient claims of Mirdita. His son Gjon was recognized as *kapidan*, supported the Government on national issues, and sent Mirditë recruits to the army. But all government action in Mirditë has to be sanctioned by the *kapidan*, and the 'Canon of Lek' is strictly observed by these tribes, which are the only group strong enough to challenge the Matjë administration.

(47) MUHURRI (Muhurr): a tribe in Dibra, between M. e Runjës and the Drin: bounded north by Reç Dardha; east by Kastrioti beyond the Drin; south by Luznija; west by Matja.

(48) NIKAJ (1,800-2,445; 350-430 armed men), one *bajrak*, formerly Orthodox but now all Catholics, occupies the valleys of Lum i Currajt, L. i Kuqit, L. i bardhë, and L. i zi, tributaries of the Drin, and the right bank of L. i Nikajt from the junction of L. i Currajt and Kuqit nearly to the Drin: also the eastern slopes of Kakinja; bounded north by Montenegro; east by Krasniqi; south by Merturi; west by Shala and Thethi.

Villages: Mëser, Palkolaj, Peraj (*bajraktar*), Curraj i poshtëm,

Curraj i epër, Nikprendaj, Kapit, Lekbibaj, Gjonpepaj (church), Vranë (summer pasture), Kisha e Vargut (ruined church), Bushat, Qireq (Çerec), Kuq.

There are three local subdivisions (*kuvendet*)—Kolbibaj, Lekbibaj, Curraj (or Markbibaj)—subdivided into 'houses' (*shpijet*) which are small hamlets, scattered among the rocks, about 300 in all. The district is sterile and often waterless. Nikaj is the wildest and most inaccessible of Albanian clans, gloomy, taciturn, and easily offended. It is said to have gipsy blood (*curaj*) and to be an offshoot of Krasniqi (30), and some families seem to be of Kelmend or Bosnian origin. Many men of Nikaj are given Moslem names after baptism, as in Shala.

(49) NIKÇI (Nikç) (upper and lower): a *bajrak* of Kelmendi (29) bounded north by Vukli; east by Montenegro; south by Boga; west by Hoti and Kastrati.

(50) OROSHI (Orosh: 120 families): a *bajrak* of Mirdita, all Catholics, on the left bank of the Fan i vogël, below the Fandi clan, and on the slopes of M. i Shenjt where the clan uses the Fushë e Nënshëjtit summer pastures: bounded north and west by Kushneni; east by Fandi; south by Lura and Kthella.

Villages: Orosh, chief place, with *kapidan* of all Mirdita, and monastery with mitred abbot; Zajs, Mashtrokorë, Lgjin.

(51) PLANDI: a *bajrak* of the Pult district or a separate tribe within Pulati diocese.

(52) PLOSHTANI (Ploshtan): a tribe in Dibra, north of the Veleshicë tributary of the Drin: bounded north by Luma, in which it is included as a *bajrak* by some, and by Gora; east by Yugoslavia; south by Trojaku; west by Reç Dardha across the Drin.

(53) POSTRIBA (Postribë) is the group north-east of Scutari, consisting of the three *bajraks*, Boksi (5), Drishti (12), and Ura e Shtrejtë (74). Catholics 6,000, Moslems 6,900, Orthodox 400; some include also Mazrek (Catholic), Shllaku, Temali, Lohja, and Reçi. It is bounded north by Shkreli; east by Shoshi and Dushmani; south by Scutari; west by Rrjoll: but all these are sometimes included in Postriba.

(54) PUKA (Pukë) (7,200; 2,300 Catholics, 230 Moslem): a *bajrak* of Dukagjin, bounded on north by Berisha; east by Iballja, Kabashi, and Spaçi (Mirditë); south by Dibri (Mirditë); west by Qerreti and beyond the Drin by Temali. The population is essentially indigenous

(*anas*). The name Puka is also used, more widely, of the district between Mirdita country and the great bend of the Drin, occupied by the 'seven *bajraks*' of Dukagjin, Puka, Berisha, Qerreti, Thaçi (Bugjoni and Iballja), Mali i zi, Kabashi; some add Mertur i Gurit, which is the district of Mertur south of the Drin: Catholics 2,300, Moslems 230.

(55) PULTI (Pult) or PULATI (2,400–2,900; 450–500 armed men). The name is used in two senses:

(a) *Lower Pulti* is a traveller's general name for the clans in the upper Kir valley, north-east of Scutari, bounded north by Biga e Gimajt; east by Shala and Shoshi; south by Maranaj; west by Rrjolli and by the Malsi e madhe mountains which culminate in Velgjas. On the east are two main passes to the Leshnicë valley; Q. e Boshit and Q. e Kirit (Q. e Shoshit). There are three *bajraks* sometimes grouped together under the name Bajraku i Pultit:

Xhani (Gjoani) (77) on the right bank of the Kir; 45 Catholic houses, 350 persons; 30 Moslem houses, 200 persons.

Kiri (30), on the left bank; 85 Catholic houses (650); 30 Moslem houses (200).

Plandi (51): 177 Catholic houses (1,200); 30 Moslem houses (200). Each *bajrak* has its church, and at Xhan resides the bishop of Pulti diocese which includes the Kir, Leshnicë, and Nikaj valleys. Suma is a separate clan of Pulti (or tribe within Pulati diocese), and Mgulla is sometimes so described.

(b) *Upper Pulti*, however, is used by travellers to denote all the clans (Catholics 1,550) under the jurisdiction of the bishop at Xhan—Shala, Shoshi, Nikaj, Berisha, Merturi, and Toplana forming the 'Little Highland' (Malsi e vogël): some add Gimaj, in the headwaters of the Leshnicë, and Dushman between Malsi e madhe and the Drin. The bishopric already existed in A.D. 877, was combined with Antivari, now Bar (1062), with Ragusa, now Dubrovnik (1121), and with Antivari again (1251); after much persecution (1372–1421) these 'upper' and 'lower' bishoprics were united (1520) and a cathedral was built in 1720. But, unlike Mirdita or Matja, Pulti never had vigorous secular chiefs.

(56) QERRETI (Qerret) (1,450: Catholics 1,210, Moslems 240): a *bajrak* of Dukagjin, on the slopes of Leja, overlooking the Gomsiqe and Drin valleys, south of Cukali: bounded north by Shllaku; east by Puka; south by Dibri (Mirditë) and Zadrима; west by the Drin lowland.

Villages: Dush i epër, Dush i poshtëm, Kçirë, Qerret i epër ('upper' or Gomsiqe valley), Qerret i poshtëm ('lower' or Drin valley), Koman.

(57) REÇ DARDHA (Reç Dardhë): a tribe of the Dibra group, between the Drin, the Mollë e Lurës, and M.e Runjës, bounded north by Luma; east by Ploshtani across the Drin; south by Muhurr; west by Lura. Reç and Dardhë are reckoned as *bajraks* of Lura.

(58) RREJA E VELJËS (Rrejë e Veljës) (sometimes called Velja) (74 houses); a *bajrak* of Malsija e Leshit; bounded by Dibri on the north, and by Manatija on the south.

Villages: Velë e Vëndit (church), Gjash, Lalmë, Kaçinar, Patale, Rrejë e Veljës.

(59) RRJOLLI (Rrjoll) (100-500 armed men): mainly Catholic; one *bajrak* (though some reckon Lohja and Reçi as a second *bajrak* of Rrjoll): occupies the Rrjoll valley between M. i Kurrilës to west, M. i Bishkazit and Maranaj to east and Tarabosh to north: bounded north by Shkreli; east by Suma; south by Lake Scutari and Boksi; west by Lohja and Reçi. The valley is divided by a spur of M. i Bishkazit; to west is Sheu i Rrjollit, to east Gurra e Kurtit. Many Rrjoll families live in winter on the coast between the Boyana and Shëngjin, and all the bakers in Scutari are of this clan. The Rrjoll came from Herzegovina after the Turkish conquest (early sixteenth century).

(60) SELITA (Selitë) (2,300:280 houses): Catholic 1,500 (200 houses); Moslem 800 (80 houses): occupies parts of the Tharpni and Urakë valleys (to the junction of the Zall i Milthit) and the north part of the Zall i Tharit: bounded north by Oroshi (Mirdita); east by Lura; south by Matja, along a left-bank tributary of the Urakë from Dêja e Macukullit, and the ridge between Zall i Tharit and Zall i Shebjës; west by Kthella.

Villages: Kurbnesh, Ikund, Bozhiq, Zeisë, Mëkurthë, Kumbllë: Lufaj i epër, Lufaj i poshtëm, Gjoçaj, and Dajç are Moslem.

Though this clan is agricultural, a third of its necessary maize has to be imported from Matja and Dibra. Selita is very poor, uncivilized, violent, and predatory. Most of the dwellings are *kullë* towers.

Locally, Selita, Beshkashi, and Kthella are called the 'three *bajraks* of Ohri i vogël'.

(61) SHALA (Shalë) (3,200-4,350); four *bajraks*, Catholic; akin to Shoshi and closely connected with it, occupies the Shalë or upper

Leshnicë valley from Q. e Pejës to Q. e Boshit, between the Drin and the Prokletija ('accursed') range. Thethi, the northern *bajrak*, has its church at Ndrejaj. Shala is bounded north-west by Thethi, and by Boga and Nikçi, both tribes of the Kelmend group; east by Merturi and Nikaj; south by Shoshi; and west by Plandi and Gimaj. The pass Qafë e Ndërmajnës between Shtrazë and M. i Ershelit is on the frontier between Shala and Nikaj.

There are said to be either four *bajraks* (Thethi, Pecaj, Lotaj, Lekaj) or three or two *bajraks* (Shala, left of the Leshnicë, Gimaj on the right bank, and Thethi) which have sometimes been described as separate tribes.

Villages: *in Theth*, Ndrejaj, Markdedaj, Gjecaj, Nikgjonaj, Okol (80 houses), Leçaj; *in Shalë e madhe*, Gimaj (*bajraktar*), Nën-mavriq, Lekaj, Lotaj, Abatë (church), Nicaj, Pecaj (*bajraktar*), Bob, Dednikaj, Vuksanaj, Pjol.

The Shalë breed cattle, and are farmers and cultivators and also brigands. Their valley is well watered and has good pastures. Maize is the usual crop, but much is imported from Peć (Ipek) in Yugoslavia. Wheat is grown only for local use, and export is forbidden. Many Shala families have migrated to Peć and its neighbourhood, where Istinići, near the Dechan (*Serb.* Dečan) monastery in Yugoslavia, is wholly composed of them.

Shala and Shoshi are closely associated, have the same occupations and characteristics, and are sometimes called one *bajrak*. Shala is also declared part of the Dukagjin 'clan of the six *bajraks*', but a few families are descended from small dark aboriginal *anas*. Many Shalë men are given Moslem names after baptism as in Nikaj.

(62) SHKRELI (Shkrel) (5,700 with 950 armed men), one *bajrak*: Catholics 5,000 (500 houses); Moslems 700 (100 houses), occupies the middle Prroni i thatë and Banush valleys: bounded north by Boga; east by Gimaj and Plandi; south by Suma, Rrjoll, Lohja and Reç; west by Kastrati.

Villages: Vrrith, Bzhetë (church), Ducaj, Sterkunjë, Poicë (Polica), Grishaj, Stoli, Dedaj, Zagoraj (mosque).

To Shkrel is also attached the *bajrak* of Bogë (660 Catholics, 10 Moslems) properly belonging to Kelmendi.

Villages: Bogë, (Precaj, with church).

The Shkrel came from Bosnia in the sixteenth century, but their patron-saint is St. Nicolas of Bari in S. Italy. Their territory is the most stony and waterless of Malsi e madhe. They are, therefore,

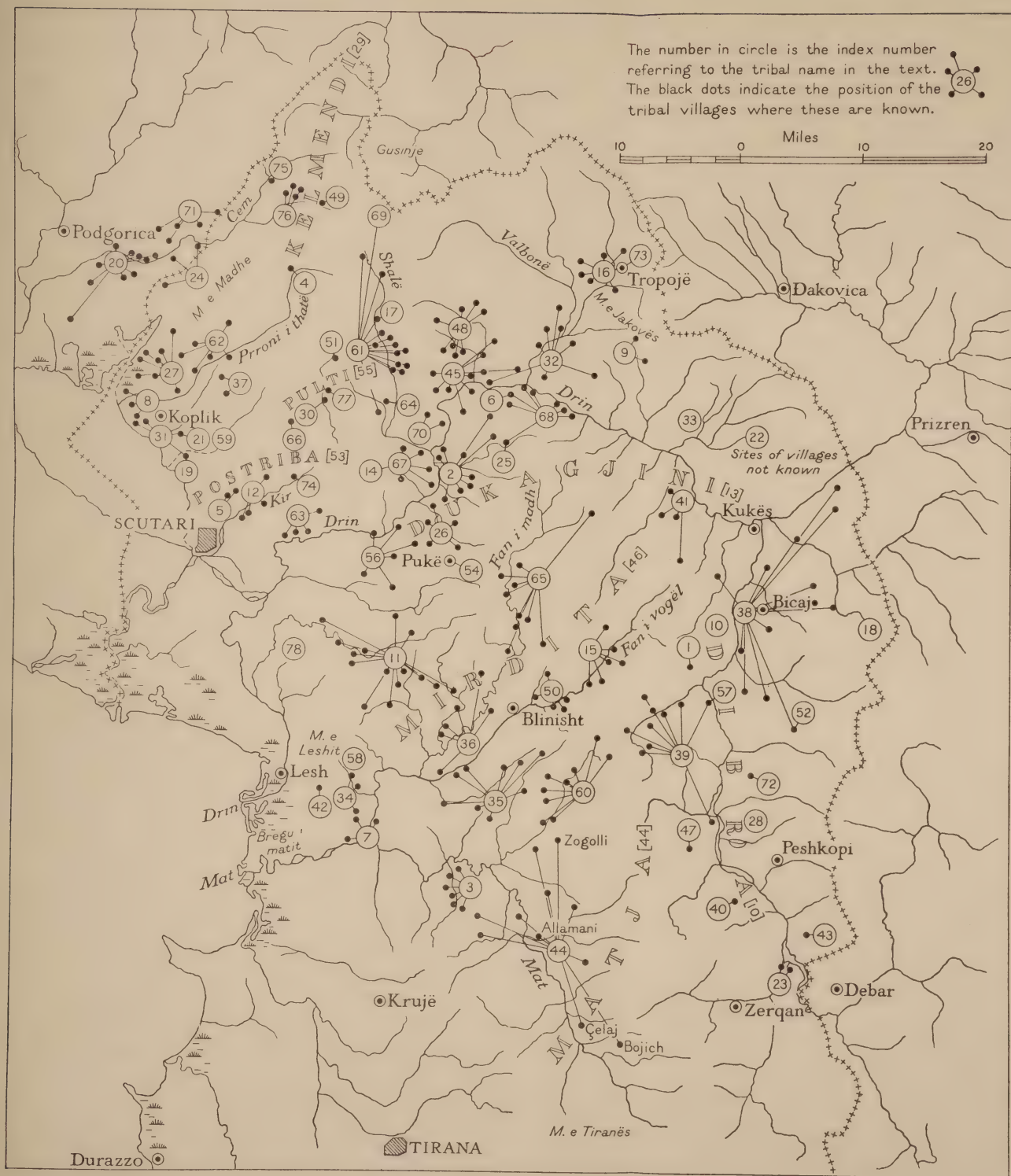


FIG. 29. The northern tribes

wholly cattle-breeders on high summer and valley winter pastures; only Zagoraj and Dedaj villages have arable land. Like Kelmendi, in summer they occupy their own pastures on Velgjas about Plandi, and some hire pastures north of the main chain. Formerly they had permission from the Turkish Governor of Scutari to graze in the plain of the Boyana. In October they descend into Bregu i Matit plain between Drin and Mat, and on to Mali i Rrëncit near Lesh. Few go as far as the coast in winter, but cultivate waste ground between Reç, Sveti Đorđe (Shëngjergj), and Sveti Nikola (San Nicolo), both in Yugoslavia, and also part of Bregu i Matit.

(63) SHLLAKU (Shllak) (900), one *bajrak*, Catholic: occupies the south slopes of Cukali, on the right bank of the Drin, and the upper Ndërfushë valley: bounded north by Dushmani and Temali; east and south by Qerreti; west by Boksi and Drishti.

Villages: Shllak (church), Mengullë e Gjekajve, Barcoll, Mazrek, Mëshkallë, Shporë.

A poor clan of goat-keepers and charcoal-burners, said to be an offshoot of Toplana.

(64) SHOSHI (Shosh) (2,000–3,200): Catholic, occupies the middle Leshnicë valley: bounded north by Shala; east by the range crowned by Ndërmajna and Gur i Lekës (Gur i Lek Dukagjinit); south by Temali and Toplana. The principal village, Ndregjinaj (Shosh), with church, is on a ridge between the Stupja and another tributary gorge of the Leshnicë.

(65) SPAÇI (Spaç) (650 families): a *bajrak* of Mirdita, Catholic, occupying the upper left bank of the Fan i madh and the west and south slopes of Munella as far as the right bank of the Fan i vogël: bounded north by Iballja; east by Mali i zi; south by Fandi and Kushneni, both Mirditë; west by Puka and Kabashi. The Scutari-Prizren road traverses Spaç from Qafë e Malit to Arst.

Villages: *Fan i Gojanit*, Gojan i epër, Gojan i poshtëm, Qafë e Malit (church), Berdhetit, Arst, Kaulinë, Shmijë, Kimëzë, Kalivar (church); *S. of Munella*, Spaç, Shëmri, Plaksë, Shkuret; *in the mountains*, Mushtë, Dom.

Many Spaçi families have settled elsewhere, e.g. from Gojan to the mouth of the Gomsiqe tributary of the Drin; and from Spaç to Mnelë in the upper Gjadër valley.

(66) SUMA (Sumë or Samë): a *bajrak* of Pulti: majority Catholic, with some Moslems; it occupies the upper right slopes of the Kir

valley: bounded north by Shkreli and Xhani (Gjoani); east by Shoshi and Dushmani; south by Drishti and Boksi; west by Rrjolli. Suma village (Pergjen) is on a small stream flowing north-east from Q. e Thanës. The name Suma occurs as early as A.D. 1335.

(67) TEMALI (Temal) and (14) DUSHMANI (Dushman), (1,400), two *bajraks*; all Catholic: on the right bank of the Lum i Leshnicës (Shalë) opposite Toplana on the left bank, and in the angle between this stream and the Drin: bounded north by Shoshi; east by Berisha and Puka; south by Shllaku; and west by Drishti and Suma.

Villages: Vilë (*bajraktar*), Arrë, Dushman (church), Klllogjen, Kajvall, Fuskë.

Dushman is named from Paul Dushmani, a chieftain of the fifteenth century; it made a treaty with Venice in 1403 on behalf of *Polati Minor* (see Pulti). The *Bajrak i Dushmanit* is sometimes called *Bajrak i Dushamirit*, and has its centre at the village of Dushman.

(68) THAÇI (Thaç): (2,800–5,700) mostly Catholics; two *bajraks*, Bugjoni (6) and Iballja (25), divided into four chief families. It occupies the mountain slopes on the left bank of the Drin, from Spas to the Mertur territory: bounded north by Merturi, Krasniqi, Bytyçi, and Kruma (Hasi); east by Mali i zi; south by Spaçi (Mirditë); west by Puka, Kabashi, and Berisha.

Villages: (mainly on the Drin), Bugjon, Iballe, Gralishtë, Firëz (ferry across the Drin), Porav, Apripë e keqe, Arez, Mzi, Hardopi.

Near Firëz are a few *kullë* houses, but most of the villages are open settlements.

(69) THETHI (Theth): the northern *bajrak* of Shala (61).

(70) TOPLANA (Toplanë) (650): Catholic, one of the 'six *bajraks*' of the Dukagjin tribe, occupies the angle between the Leshnicë and the Drin, opposite Dushman: bounded north and east by Merturi; east by Berisha across the Drin; south by Dushmani; west by Shoshi.

Villages: Sermë, Toplanë (church, and ferry over the Drin by raft of inflated skins).

Toplana, a very primitive group, in rugged country, is under the ecclesiastical authority of the Bishop of Xhan (Gjoani) (see Pulti). It came from Vasojevići in Montenegro about 1450. The number of adult males killed in blood feuds is greater than in any other tribe.

(71) TRIEPŠI (Triepš) (600–1,315), one *bajrak*, Catholic except for 15 Moslems, occupies the right bank of the Cem from Grabom (the frontier with Hoti) to Suka e Milcit, and is bounded on north and

west by Montenegro; east and south by Hoti. Triepši claims pastures on the Hot side of the Cem, and there are constant quarrels; but there is a neutral zone along the right bank of the Cem. Triepši territory was partly in Montenegro till 1939.

Villages: Nikmaraši, the civil centre, on high plateau above the Cem gorge; Benkani (with pastures in the Poprat and rich Grece basins in Yugoslavia), Deljaj, Poprat, Stepov (church), Budza (most northerly), Mužečka (most southerly).

(72) TROJAKU (Trojak): a tribe or *bajrak* between the Drin and the Yugoslav frontier bounded north by Ploshtani; south by Kastrioti and the non-tribal district of Peshkopi.

(73) TROPOJA (Tropojë): reckoned sometimes as a tribe or *bajrak* of Gashi in Malsija e Jakovës, is the substantial administrative village which gives its name to Lum i Tropojës, a large tributary of the Valbonë, with a side-stream Lugu i Tropojës.

(74) URA E SHTREJTË; a *bajrak* of Postriba district; the name appears to be that of a single village.

(75) VERMOSHI (Vermosh) (sometimes called Selca or Selcë from a large village): a *bajrak* of Kelmendi (29) in the main valley of the Cem from Grabom to huts above Nikçi and in the Vermosh and Shkrobotushë valley. The Vermosh is a tributary of the Danubian Lim.

(76) VUKLI (Vukël) (240 houses, 270 armed men): a *bajrak* of Kelmendi (29) bounded north by Gusinje; east and south by Boga. Villages: Vukël (church), Vuksan Dedaj, Stalaj, Perushaj.

(77) XHANI (Xhan), sometimes spelt Gjoani: a *bajrak* of Pulti (55); on the right bank of the Kir; 45 Catholic houses, 350 persons; 30 Moslem houses, 200 persons.

(78) ZADRIMA (Zadrimë): a district, but also a tribe or *bajrak*, in the highland northward from the Mal i Veljës range to the lower Drin: bounded north by Qerret; east by Dibri (Mirditë); south by Lesh; west by the coast plain. It includes the valleys of the Gomsiqe and lower Gjadër; but upper Gjadër belongs to Dibri, and there are Spaçi villages.

Territorial Names

BREGU I MATIT is bounded south by the Mat river after it leaves the highland; west by the sea; east by Bulgëri in the highland north of

the Mat; and north by the lowland of Lesh. Most of it is swamp, pastured in winter by tribes from the Malsi e Leshit and by Kelmendi from the north. It is a topographical term, not a tribal division.

GUSINJE: a Moslem district (not a tribe) north-east of the Prokletija ('accursed') mountains, with a Serbian name and outside the Albanian frontier; bounded by Kelmendi, Thethi, Nikaj, and Krasniqi. It had formerly a Bosnian population, but, though Serb-speaking, resisted inclusion in Serbia (1878) and was devastated first by Montenegrins (1913) and then by Serbs (1919); it was, however, again assigned to Serbia (1924), but temporarily restored to Albania in 1941.

MALËSORËT ('Mountain-men', *sing.* Malësor, *Conv.* Malissori) is a general name for highlanders north of the Drin (55,000; Catholics 34,400; Moslems 20,000; Orthodox 1,000) and for the district bounded north by Montenegro (Kuç and Drekalovici); east by the Deçanska Planina and Bytyç plain; south by L. Scutari, the Drinasa stream, and the Drin; west by the plains of the Cem. At Scutari, however, the term is restricted to the Catholic clans, of which the most important are the five 'mountains of Shkodër' (Malsi e Shkodrës). Of these, Hoti, Gruda, Kelmendi, Shkreli, Kastrati, and some smaller groups, constitute *Malsi e madhe*; in *Malsi e vogël* are included Shala, Shoshi, Plandi, and the tribes of the Toplanë district; a third division, *Rranxhat mbi Shkodrës*, comprises Kopliku and Buza e Ujit; Postriba is the fourth. Hoti and Gruda were assigned to Montenegro from 1913 to 1939.

MALSIJA E JAKOVËS (Malsi e Jakovës) describes the highland district north of Kukës occupied by Gashi, Krasniqi, and Bytyçi. Some include Kruma, Hasi, and Tropoja; the latter have, however, only a large village (Tropojë).

MALSIJA E LESHIT (Malsi e Leshit or 'Alessio Highlands') (3,100; all Catholics), a district occupying the lower Fan valley and the right bank of the Mat from its confluence with the Fan to the plain: bounded north by Zadrime and the Dibri tribe of Mirdita; east by Majë e Dervenit, Rreja e Veljës, and Manatija (sometimes included in Malsi e Leshit); south by Bregu i Matit; west by the coast and the marshes of the Boyana. There are four small *bajraks*, Kryezezi, Bulgëri, Rreja e Veljës, and Manatija. All are exceedingly poor, as their country is covered with brushwood and has few meadows.

MALSIJA E MADHE (Malsi e madhe) describes the mountain district between the plain of Scutari, the Drin, and the Montenegrin

frontier: Catholics 16,000, Moslems 3,500: including Hoti, Gruda, Kelmendi (Vermoshi (Selca), Vukli, Boga, Nikçi), Shkreli, Kastrati, Kočani, Triepši, Buza e Ujit, Shoshi, Shala, Nikaj, Merturi.

MALSIJA E TIRANËS (Malsi e Tiranës) (4,300; Catholics 1,300, Moslem 3,000). This is the highland between T'irana and the Mat, and on it live the clans Bena, Kurbini, Rranxhija, all in semi-dependence on the Matjë tribe.

MALSIJA E VOGËL (Malsi e vogël) is not shown by that name on maps, but seems to be well-known locally as the district south-east of Melsija e madhe, and drained by the L. i Shalës. Shala, Shoshi, Plaudi and the tribes of the Toplanë district live in it.

CHAPTER VIII

HISTORY

Note: A set of ten historical maps (Figs. 30 to 39) will be found at the end of this chapter.

Outline of Albanian History

THE inhabitants of Albania are the oldest established of the Balkan peoples and have retained much of their primitive tribal society. In ancient times they remained barbarous, resented Greek attempts to colonize their coast, and became insolent and dangerous pirates until Rome subjected them and built its great eastward road, the Via Egnatia, through their country. The southern tribes accepted Christianity from the Eastern Church, the northern from the Roman. Slavs and Bulgars occupied much Albanian territory, but failed to dominate the highlands and the coast. The Ottoman conquest led to 450 years of nominal vassalage. The revival of nationalism among Balkan peoples affected Albania slowly, but Ottoman mismanagement and the aggressions of liberated Serbs, Bulgars, and Greeks led to the formation of an independent Albanian state which, however, became, first economically and then politically, a reluctant dependency of Italy. In 1939 it was forcibly occupied by Italy, reinforced in 1943 by Germany. By the end of 1944 the invaders had been expelled.

Origins

Ancient geographers distinguished, among the northern neighbours of the Greeks, a western or *Illyrian* group and an eastern group which they called in general *Thracians*. The latter was known to be related with the Phrygians who overran Anatolia about 1200 B.C. and left traces also in Macedon and Greece; the former, quite distinct from the *Gauls* or *Celts* (who were spreading spasmodically out of the Danube basin from the fourth to the second century B.C.), was vaguely related to the *Venetian* peoples round the head of the Adriatic, and more closely to the *Messapian* and *Iapygian* peoples of the Adriatic coastland of Italy. There have been several attempts to trace the antecedents of the Illyrian culture and folk of classical antiquity. For certain phases of the Early Iron Age there is much archaeological evidence from settlements and graves, especially in Bosnia and Herzegovina. Albania and Montenegro, on the other hand, and north-

western Greece are almost unexplored. The dominant influence is the Hallstatt culture of the middle Danube region.

The Classical Period

In historic times hellenization was more or less complete on the Aegean side of the Dinaric watershed as far north as Thessaly and Macedon; but on the Adriatic slope it never spread effectively beyond the gulf of Arta. The colonies of Corinth and Corcyra, of which the chief was Epidamnus, better known later by its Illyrian name Dyrrhachium (mod. *Durrës* or *Durazzo*), were founded in the seventh, sixth, and fifth centuries among unfriendly barbarians. But Ambracia on the gulf of Arta traded far into the interior, and the paramount chiefs of Epirus—a general descriptive term for the north-western ‘mainland’—claimed descent from Achilles.

Within this Illyrian group of peoples the northern tribes of Dalmatia, merging in the Veneti, were distinguished from those of the south, whose constant aggressions against the north-western Greeks and against Macedon culminated in the rule of Bardylis (383–359), who was crushed by Philip of Macedon. In Epirus King Pyrrhus (318–272) claimed the allegiance of many Illyrian tribes and momentarily overcame Macedon; but his campaigns in Italy and Sicily (281–275) were frustrated by the loyalty of the Greek cities there to Rome. After his death, and under Gaulish pressure from the north, the Illyrians of Lissus and Scodra, like the Dalmatians, became a piratical menace to Adriatic commerce. Repeated Roman intervention (229, 219, 180, 168) checked these raiders, but left the inland tribes undisturbed. In 168 what is now Albania was included in the Roman province of Illyria, which was bounded to south and south-east by Macedonia, to north-west by Cisalpine Gaul (Lombardy), and, later, to north-east by Pannonia. The great Roman road from Dyrrhachium to Thessalonica became—or perhaps followed¹—a linguistic boundary and served mainly not to benefit the natives, but to transfer Roman armies to the Danube frontier and to Asia. The highlanders were only pacified, after hard fighting, in Dalmatia in 33 B.C. and in the south as late as A.D. 9. Thenceforward their fighting men were among the best imperial troops and supplied several emperors to Rome, of whom the chief were Aurelian and Diocletian. In the provincial reorganization of A.D. 285 Illyricum became a major division (*diocese*) and adhered to the west till 379, but when Eastern and

¹ The Shkumbî valley, which is followed by the Roman road, now divides the Geg-speaking from the Tosk-speaking Albanians.

Western Empires separated in 395 it fell apart into a Latin-speaking and a Greek-speaking half, represented by the adherents of the Roman Catholic and the Greek Orthodox churches. Under Byzantine rule all north Albania—the districts of Scutari and Berat—became the *thema* of Dyrrhachium; all south Albania fell into the *thema* governed from Nicopolis at the entrance to the gulf of Arta.

The Slav Invasions

The earlier invasions of northern barbarians, mainly Goths, hardly reached the watershed, but there were Hun inroads in 441 and 447, and in 481 Dalmatia was annexed to the Ostrogoth kingdom in the Danube basin and only partially restored to the Eastern Empire by Justinian (535). The Avar raid of 565 opened the way for persistent immigrations of the southern Slavs (600–640) who came, not like earlier invaders mainly to raid, but to settle, and steadily replaced or absorbed alike the latinized Illyrians and their Gothic overlords; the western Croats acquiring the Latin culture and form of Christianity, while the eastern Serbs were civilized directly and exclusively from Greek Byzantium, a distinction of profound importance thereafter. Probably the differences between the Slav-speaking Montenegrins and the Serbs and Croats are due in part to the absorption of an Illyrian element. Slav tribal separatism resulted in a régime of small communities and republics which spread far into Greece. It was partly repelled, partly met and modified, by the survivors of the ‘Roman’ culture in Roumelia represented by the modern Aromuni or Vlachs, though most of them became slavonized and merged in the Bulgarian people; some early Bulgar princes were of Vlach origin. Only the coast cities such as Durazzo, Ragusa, and Spalato retained Italian culture and connexions throughout; while some semi-nomad but Latin-speaking tribes in the highlands became associated with other ‘Roman’ groups throughout the Balkan lands and became the *Mavro-vlach* (‘Black Vlach’) people of medieval and modern times.

The Bulgar Finns from the Volga, though they raided in 861 as far as Himarë (*Gk.* Chimarra) on the coast north of Corfu, had at first no greater success than the Serbs and Croats in establishing themselves south of the Boyana (Buenë) river or west of the watershed. After defeating the Serbs, however, the Bulgarian leader Simeon (893–927) temporarily conquered all the coast districts except Durazzo, and colonized systematically. His successor Shishman ruled from Ochrida (Ohrid) after 927, and Durazzo itself was taken by Shishman’s son Samuel (976–1014). But after the victories of Basil II, the

'Bulgar-slaying' Emperor, Epirus and south Albania were recovered uneasily by Byzantium. There is therefore no coherent Bulgar element west of the watershed to support recent Bulgarian claims to Albanian territory.

Frankish Principalities

The Normans of south Italy took Durazzo in 1081, but lost it; they failed to retake it in 1107, and withdrew altogether in 1109.

When the Franks took Constantinople in 1204 a Byzantine prince, Michael Comnenus, withdrew westward and founded the 'Despotate' of Epirus, a principality which included south Albania, Acarnania, and Aetolia as far as the gulf of Corinth. His dynasty was replaced in 1318 by the Orsini, an Italian adventurer-house, who maintained themselves till 1358, usually in loose alliance with the Frankish princes in the Morea against the Byzantine Empire. The Despotate emphasized and defined the extent of Byzantine culture and political influence in the districts which had been partly hellenized long before and christianized from Byzantium.

Meanwhile Durazzo, Berat, and much of central Albania, conquered, after the collapse of the Norman Dynasty, by the Sicilian kings of the house of Anjou, formed a 'Kingdom of Albania' from 1271 to 1368, in constant struggle with Byzantium.

Feudal Anarchy

In northern Albania Serb aggression from 1180 maintained the Nemanya dynasty at Scutari and Prizren till 1360, by which time Stephen Dushan (1331-1358), 'Emperor of Romania, Slavonia and Albania', had united all Albanian tribes. After his death the Ballsha Dynasty (1366-1421), Serbian but Catholic and nationalist, held highland Albania; Alessio (Lesh) and the interior towards Ipek (Peć) fell to the Dukagjin family; Durazzo, Croia (Krujë), and the north to the Thopia clan (1359-1392), followed by the Kastrioti to whom Skanderbeg belonged. The south was dominated by the Musaki family of Berat (1368-1476). It was in this period of internal strife that the great southward migration occurred (1368), mainly out of the mountainous north. Famous and partly fabulous heroes of it were Gjin Bua Spata and Peter Liosha; and many Tosk adventurers took service with the Frankish despots of Mistra and with Nerio Duke of Athens. To this period go back the longer Albanian pedigrees, such as those of the Berishë tribe on the Middle Drin. As the Ballsha

power declined, towards 1500, Venice occupied Scutari, Budua (Budva), Antivari, and other places farther north, to protect Adriatic waters from the growing naval power of the Ottoman Turks.

Albanians outside Albania

It has been necessary to take a large view of the Dinaric peoples as a whole in order to illustrate the marked contrast between the South-Slav Croats and Serbs, and also the Bulgar Finns, who overran the eastern Serbs and acquired much of their Byzantine culture, and those southern Illyrian peoples who resisted every attack on their rugged highlands, retained their ancient language and close tribal organization, and have survived under the general name of Albanians. Former occupation of parts of Albania and even of Greece by Slav-speaking groups may be traced by Slavonic place-names, but isolated Albanian settlements abroad are as common as are foreign elements within. This results mainly from the overflow of Albanians in the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries into Aetolia (1358), to Attica and the Morea, and even into the adjacent islands of Euboea, Andros, Hydra, and Spetza, where there were Albanian-speaking pastorals, peasants, and seamen within living memory. Before the frontiers were defined and guarded, hardly a year passed without some habitual seekers for seasonal work omitting to return and merging in a Greek-speaking, if not wholly Greek-thinking, folk within the Greek kingdom. The causes of this movement are obscure, but it may be noted generally that a spell of extreme cold and wet drives highlanders down-hill as surely as a spell of drought in lowland countries drives nomads and peasants alike up-hill to cooler and moister heights. The Albanians of Greece, whom Leake estimated, about 1840, at 200,000, rendered distinguished service in the War of Independence, not always with the same political ideals as their Greek compatriots, but with the same inveterate hatred of Ottoman oppressors.

By far the largest external settlements of Albanians, however, are those of similar origin in Sicily and south Italy. They took place in 1444, 1464, and 1468, but, under Ottoman pressure, were reinforced at intervals during the next three centuries. These are of southern Tosk-speaking descent, and may retain their language and, under papal licence, their Orthodox worship. Estimates of their numbers vary. In 1910 there were still seven Albanian communes (pop. 52,141) in Sicily and seventy-two (pop. 154,674) in Italy. In 1921 there were about 80,000 who still spoke Albanian.

There is also a large Albanian population (c. 60,000) in the United

States, mainly refugees from the last years of Ottoman rule and temporary wage-earners who return with their savings.

Social Structure and its Historical Effect

Unlike the Greeks, who emerged from tribal society before their great classical period, and are held together by language, education, literary heritage, and by their consciousness of national and political aims, the Albanians allow neither language nor education nor religion to override tribal unity and the observance of inter-tribal law. There are Albanians in the south who speak Greek and are Orthodox Christians; in the north there are Catholics, in the centre Moslems, both speaking Albanian dialects. All of these agree in maintaining a tribal tradition, and it is only in the Montenegrin highland that there are tribes, Serbian-speaking and Orthodox, but apparently of Albanian origin, who do not usually agree with their Albanian-speaking neighbours on this point. Thus Albania has a tribal sub-structure resembling that of the Greek peoples in Homeric times, before they created their city-state polity. It has, however, a super-structure, post-Roman and medieval, reinforced by Turkish conquest and essentially feudal. The owners of large estates, who consequently dominate the food-supply, have in effect controlled also the very large domain lands which might otherwise have sustained a dynasty. A dynasty indeed there has been, from time to time; for a very short period under the Ballsha clan (1316-1421), under Skanderbeg (1443-1467), and under Ali Pasha of Tepelenë and Yannina (1787-1822). The Ottoman Sultans, though overlords since the fifteenth century, profited little from their Albanian domains and incurred vast expenses to retain them.

Skanderbeg

The Ballsha period of feudal anarchy (1366-1421) was hardly over when the Ottoman Turks, already masters of Macedon and Serbia, took Yannina in 1431. When they invaded Epirus in 1423 they had taken as hostage a remarkable personage, Georgio Kastrioti of Croia. Georgio Kastrioti was born in 1403. His grandfather Pal (Paul) was chieftain of two villages of the Kastriot clan in the Mat valley. His father Gjon (John) ruled from C. Rodoni to Dibra and built the castle of Juban at the junction of Drin and Drinasa. In 1415 he acquired from Venice the fortress of Croia. In 1423 his four sons were taken by the Turks as hostages, and at his death three were poisoned. Georgio became a Moslem, entered the Turkish service,

and so distinguished himself that he acquired the name *Skanderbeg* after Alexander the Great. In 1443, when the Turks were defeated at Nish by the Hungarians, he forged an order for the surrender of Croia, reverted to Christianity, raised a force of 12,000 men, and massacred most of the Turks in Albania. On 1 March 1444 an assembly at Alessio hailed him as 'Chief of the League of the Albanian People', and he became the ally of Vladislaus of Hungary and Poland. Their projects, however, were ruined by George, Despot of Serbia, and Vladislaus was defeated and killed at Varna. Skanderbeg refused a Turkish pardon and from 1449 to 1461 defeated all Turkish attacks, till he was recognized by Mohammed II (1451-1481) as Prince of Albania and Epirus. In 1463, however, he attacked Turkey again, hoping for support from the west, and, during the desperate Turkish reprisals, died of fever in 1467 while negotiating for Venetian reinforcements. His tomb at Alessio was long venerated by Turks and Albanians alike. The career of this national hero of Albania illustrates what is possible even among tribes so profoundly separatist; but it has never been rivalled. In 1478 the garrison of Croia (which had been sold by Skanderbeg's son to Venice in 1474) surrendered and was massacred, and the fortress was sold to the Sultan.

The Three Warring Creeds

The northern tribes, under the Dukagjin clan, had never followed Skanderbeg, and the Sultan's acquisition of Croia was rapidly followed by his capture of Scutari from Venice and the Montenegrin chiefs (1478), and expulsion of many Albanians to Dalmatia and to Italy. Durazzo was taken in 1502 and Antivari and Dulcigno, the last Venetian fortresses, in 1571. This was the end of Venetian dominion in Albania. But there was no effective conquest. Turkish sea power in the west was broken at Lepanto (1572); Montenegro, with Albanian courage and Slav obstinacy, held out; and as Ottoman prestige declined Albanian anarchy increased. Moreover, as after the Roman conquest, warlike Albanians found a congenial and lucrative career in the armies of their overlords. Many Albanian chiefs and adventurers rose to high office under the Sultans. In the highlands, especially along the Serb border from Korçë to Prizren, and northwards into Novi Pazar, a majority accepted Islam. The urban Moslems around Berat and Yannina also include Albanians as well as Turks. On the other hand, many Albanians, dispossessed of their lands in Albania, migrated eastwards and southwards, and also into Italy and Sicily.

The Albanian-speaking population was thus divided between three

unfriendly creeds instead of two, and the main mass of Moslems, lying between the Catholic Gëgs in the north and the Orthodox Tosks in the south, were continuous eastwards with the Moslem Slavs of Old Serbia and Novi Pazar. Albania has been economically so poor, till recent discoveries of minerals, that no European Power has thought the country worth exploiting. Even Venice cared only for its harbours and coast fortresses, as outer guard to the Adriatic. The Turks made full use of its unique export, fighting men; but it lay off the main avenue of Turkish advance into Europe. During the Ottoman retreat it was of more importance, through its agelong quarrel with Serb and Greek, aggravated by its widespread acceptance of Islam. It was through these quarrels that it has earned its only foreign help towards national independence. It was only the Ottoman policy of assimilation, during the nineteenth century, and especially the demand for compulsory service outside Europe in place of voluntary adventure, that undermined Albanian loyalty; and the doctrinaire nationalism of the 'Young Turks' in 1908 at last convinced even Moslem Albanians that self-government could not be achieved under Ottoman suzerainty.

The Eighteenth Century

A few abler chiefs had aspired to repeat the doings of Skanderbeg, glorified and enhanced in folk-memory. During the eighteenth century Mehmet Bey of Bushat, a summer village near Scutari, united all Albania north of the Shkumbî and was recognized as hereditary Pasha of Scutari. He was encouraged by Austria, but assassinated before he could revolt openly. His son Kara (Black) Mahmud defeated Kurt Pasha of Berat, occupied Ochrida, beat the Montenegrins in 1785, invaded the Kosovo lowland, resisted Ali Pasha of Tepelenë and won over part of his forces. To secure Austrian and north Albanian help he became a Catholic. But the Catholics hated the Orthodox more than the Turks, and diverted Mahmud's energies against Montenegro (1785), where he was defeated and killed (1786). Mustafa Bushati, though he had suppressed Greek insurgents in 1822, attacked the Turks in 1829 and took Nish, but on the conclusion of the Russo-Turkish war he made peace. Other Albanian chiefs who resisted proposed 'reforms' were deserted by their Christian serfs and entrapped and massacred by the Vizir Reshid Pasha, and when Mustafa rallied the northern tribes, and negotiated with Austria and with Mehemet Ali of Egypt, he was defeated by the Vizir at Prilep, with Moslem and Christian help, and surrendered in 1831 after four months' siege in Scutari. The Bushati were the last feudal rulers of

Albania, and in 1856 the same Mustafa reappeared as a pioneer of reform with a scheme for a 'Council of the Mountain' (*Majlis i Jabel*) to maintain order among the tribesmen.

Albanians famous in the Turkish Service

Of the many Albanian adventurers in the Ottoman service the most distinguished were the three generations of Küprülü viziers (c. 1650–1700), and the most notable in recent times was Mehemet Ali, born (1769) at Kavalla where his father was an *aga*, official, and merchant. He volunteered for service against Napoleon (1798), raised an Albanian corps in Egypt, and was elected Pasha (1803) by the Sheikhs of Cairo. After defeating a British attack (1807), he massacred the Mamluk corps which had become unmanageable, like the Janissaries at Constantinople later. He reduced the Wahabi fanatics of Mecca and Medina (1816) and the oasis of Siwa in Libya (1810): he founded Khartoum (1823) and helped the Sultan in the Greek insurrection (1823). In 1831 he invaded Syria and Anatolia and defeated the Turks at Konya; but European intervention prevented his annexation of Syria while recognizing him as Viceroy of Egypt (1834). A second attack on the Ottoman Empire in 1838 ended similarly in his recognition as hereditary Pasha (Khedive). In 1849 this 'illiterate barbarian' was murdered by his son Ibrahim, but his dynasty remains.

Ali Pasha of Tepelenë, a contemporary of Mehemet Ali, able, cruel, and unscrupulous, crushed neighbouring chiefs of Suli and Himarë and ruled from Adriatic to Aegean under nominal Ottoman suzerainty. The 'Lion of Yannina', born in 1741, was son of Veli Husuf, a *bey* dependent on the Pasha of Berat. His father and two brothers were burned alive by Turks and his mother and sister ill treated by men from Kardhiq; and Ali's career was his revenge. After guerrilla service under the Pashas of Berat, Scutari, and Yannina, he was expelled in 1771, but found a treasure, recovered his property, and served his cousin Kurt Pasha of Berat. For services against Russia in 1787 he was made Pasha of Trikkala in Thessaly and Dervend-Pasha of Roumelia. In 1800 he took Yannina by surprise and made it his capital, expelled the French outposts from the southern ports, and later the British from Parga (1814), supporting each Power against the other in turn. His struggle with the people of Suli in Epirus, from 1792, ended with the capture of the fortress on 12 December 1803. From the Sultan he received the dignities of Vali Pasha of Roumelia and Pasha of three Tails. In 1808 he defeated a conspiracy of neighbouring Pashas and took Berat (1809), Himarë (1810), and Valona

(1812); but his expansion northwards was checked by the Bushati dynasty of Scutari, and Mustapha Pasha of Delvinë resisted him for seven years. He treated impartially the Christian majority of his subjects and built them churches. Yannina prospered and grew to 40,000 inhabitants, under the protection of his 'Iron Castle' and island palace. His standing army rose to 16,000. He negotiated independently with France and Britain, and was visited by agents of other Powers. In 1819 the Sultan attacked him. Ali offered his subjects a constitution, but failed to retain their allegiance. In 1820 Scutari fell, followed by Valona and Gjinokastër. Of his three sons two, Mukhtar and Veli, left him, but Mahmud remained loyal at Tepelenë. In 1821 when the siege of Yannina was resumed, Ali surrendered on terms, but was assassinated.

Very different is the career of Mustafa Kemal, likewise an Albanian of a Macedonian family, who, after a brilliant career in the Ottoman Army, led the nationalist movement from 1918 onwards and became the creator of the modern Turkish Republic (see *Handbook on Turkey*).

Montenegro, 1696-1919

Contrasted with the brief successes of Albanian chieftains in their own country is the long dominion of the adjacent dynasty of Montenegro with support from abroad, such as was never received by Albanians. In the seventeenth century both Russia and Austria began to look for Balkan helpers in their counter-attacks on the Ottoman Empire, which was already outliving its prestige. In 1696 Nikola son of Schepan, a Jerakovitch of Njegushi, was consecrated Vladika (prince-bishop) of Cetinje as Danilo I Petrovitch. He massacred Montenegrin Moslems, and was encouraged by Peter the Great of Russia to defeat the Turk and glorify the Slav name and faith, and his descendants dominated Montenegro till the fall of King Nikola (1918). Until 1851 they ruled as ecclesiastical head (*Vladika*) among the tribesmen, with Russian subsidies; but his nephew Danilo refused to accept any but temporal power, and with Russian support was proclaimed prince. Turkish attacks on the principality were repelled, and though Danilo was assassinated (1860), his nephew Nikola was recognized as independent by the Berlin Congress (1878) and assumed the title of King in 1910. The participation of Montenegro with Serbia in the Balkan Wars (1912-1914) involved the little kingdom in Austrian reprisals and military occupation, but at Versailles (1919) Montenegro was incorporated in the new state of Yugoslavia. After the German occupation of Yugoslavia in 1941 the district between

Lake Scutari and the sea—largely winter pasture of Geg hill tribes—was transferred to Albania.

National Revival

The Albanians experienced the same nationalist awakening as did the Greeks and southern Slavs, but they were exposed to more powerful and coherent neighbours, and clung to Ottoman suzerainty in self-defence, continuing to serve their overlord in war and administration. The risings of the Mirditë in 1853 and 1862 were not against the Turks but against the Montenegrins, and in 1876 the northern tribes (Alb. Malësorët) also joined the Turks against them, and resisted the cession of Plava and Gusinje to Montenegro in 1879. It was on an Albanian League, led by the Mirditë chief, Prenk Bib Doda, but instigated by Ottoman agents, that Sultan Abdul Hamid relied to obstruct partition of the country between Montenegro and Bulgaria under the Berlin Treaty. Having served its purpose, however, the disillusioned League was suppressed and its leader exiled. When Ulcinj (Dulcigno) was ceded to Montenegro in 1880, and the district of Arta to Greece in 1881, many Albanian families were dispersed into Macedonia and other Slav areas, as a minority loyal to Ottoman rule. In 1899 a similar Albanian League reappeared to defend Ottoman territories, and in 1903 the Albanians of Kosovo and Monastir protested against Austrian and Russian schemes in Macedonia.

Nationalism, however, is a two-edged policy. The Sultan's 'Constitution' of 1908, acclaimed at first as a charter of liberty, was rejected even by Moslem Albanians when it was found that to the Young Turks 'autonomy' and 'education' meant ottomanization, the abolition of privileges, taxation and conscription for all. In 1909 the Sultan's own Albanian guard mutinied, and the Malësorët rose; and in 1910-1911 there were revolts in Scutari and Kosovo provinces.

But the Albanians were betrayed by those who might have been their friends. In Kosovo, under Isa Bohtin, they were induced by Serbian agents to rise in 1910; but Scutari waited till 1911, and the south refrained. This ill-timed movement was crushed, and Serbs and Montenegrins invading Kosovo, massacred its Albanian population, and replaced it with Slavs.¹ Meanwhile, in August 1912, the Sultan conceded autonomy to the provinces of Scutari, Kosovo, Monastir, and Yannina, which he found himself unable to defend

¹ Consequently when the frontier was delimited in 1923 this province was assigned to Yugoslavia, though in 1908 the peasants and even the townsmen of Đakovica, Prizren, and Mitrovica had been almost wholly Albanian.

now that their loyalty had been wrecked by his own breach of their privileges.

The Balkan Wars, 1912-1913

By 1912 the nation-states already freed—Montenegro, Serbia, Bulgaria, and Greece—had completed their plans for occupying and apportioning among themselves the Ottoman dominions in Europe; and among these they reckoned Albania, where a Moslem majority had, hitherto, been loyal to the Sultan. The quarrel between Greeks and their neighbours still in tribal society was age-long and had been reawakened by the cession of Arta province with a large Albanian minority to Greece in 1881; that of the Serbs with their predecessors in Illyria was inveterate; the Montenegrins had fought the Mirditë and Malësorët unsuccessfully only a generation before. Bulgarian claims had less foundation, for effective Bulgar occupation of western Macedonia had been superseded by Serb about 1350. There remained however, scattered Bulgar groups at Ohrid, Borovë, and elsewhere; and the liberation of eastern Roumelia in 1885, and its annexation to the Bulgarian Principality of the Berlin Treaty, had inspired a nationalist movement in Macedonia, which was actively promoted by Bulgar agents and armed bands. In 1894 the Sultan had recognized Bulgarian claims so far as to sanction a Bulgarian Orthodox bishop for Macedonia, under the Berlin Treaty (art. 23). The ulterior policy was to interpose a Bulgarian community between Serb and Greek, cutting off Serbia from the Aegean at Salonica, just as Albania—whether Ottoman or liberated—and the Austrian occupation of Bosnia denied it access to the Adriatic. Bulgars had no direct quarrel with Albanians, but the westward spread of Bulgar claims in Macedonia began to press hard on Albanian communities there. To complete this ‘Macédoine’ the claims of the scattered Vlach pastorals to Romanian affinity if not nationality, recognized by the Sultan in 1906, involved friction with Bulgar rather than with Serb or Albanian neighbours, but spread unrest and uncertainty. Finally both Austria and Italy, intent on excluding other states, and particularly Slav Powers, from the Adriatic, encouraged Albanian aspirations to nationality. Just as Venice had held Durazzo against the Sultan, so did Italy and Austria hope to use Albania as a valuable advance-guard for themselves.

The Balkan League of 1912 included only the nationalities already liberated from Ottoman rule. It was the tragedy of the Albanians that, though encouraged by their suzerain to claim nationality, they remained Ottoman subjects whilst occupying an area of great

strategical importance. It was necessary for the Balkan League to expel the Turk from Albania, and that being done, the original agreement between the states of the Balkan League would have given Monastir (Bitolj) and Ohrid to Bulgaria, and consequently would have separated Serbia from Greece and the sea at Salonica. This, however, mattered the less, since Albania was to be divided, and so a Serbian force occupied Durazzo and the Montenegrins Scutari.

The Albanians remained neutral at first, but the excesses of the invaders forced them to unite in self-defence. On 28 November, at Valona, Ismail Kemal Vlora proclaimed an independent Albania under the traditional ensign of Skanderbeg. His rallying point revealed not only his local resources—Vlora is the Tosk name for Valona—but his reliance on Austria and Italy. France and Russia, on the other hand, were supporting the Balkan allies, and Britain intervened to keep the peace. On 20 December the fate of Albania was referred to the Council of Ambassadors in London, which accepted the principle of autonomy, confirmed the provisional frontiers drawn in March, and on 29 July 1913 declared Albania an 'independent sovereign state', under international guarantee and 'commission of control', but with limits which included barely half of the Albanian people.

This decision of the Powers deranged the plans of the Balkan Allies. Montenegro had to surrender Scutari, already taken through the treachery of an Albanian officer, Essad Bey Toptani, who, after the surrender, transferred its Ottoman garrison to Durazzo. Serbia and Greece, deprived of Albanian spoil, looked for compensation eastwards, where Bulgaria had succeeded past expectation in expelling Ottoman forces from Thrace. Bulgaria, anticipating such demands, attacked its allies and was defeated, and Serbs and Greeks came to an understanding in Macedonia. Serbia remained in occupation of Kosovo province and repopulated it with Serbs. With Greek support a provisional government was formed in northern Epirus (Feb. 1914) and later in the year Greece was authorized by the Powers to occupy southern Albania, a direct challenge to the policy of Italy and Austria, which had been to exclude other states from the shores of the Adriatic.

The Treaty of Sofia (10 August 1913) after the second Balkan War confirmed the partition of Macedonia between Serbia and Greece, giving to each a frontier with Albania, and at this point Austrian intervention was only prevented by the reluctance of Italy and Germany to break the general peace before the time was ripe. The dissolution of the Balkan League by the Second Balkan War was,

however, a diplomatic success for Austria and Hungary, for it ensured the co-operation of Bulgaria with the Triple Alliance. It warned the Serbs and Greeks of their danger, while it stimulated Bulgarian propaganda, infiltration, and the formation of armed bands (*comitadjis*) throughout Macedonia. The maintenance of an independent Albania was a severe blow to Serbian schemes for access to the sea. For Albania, it increased the chances of survival as a coherent territory, but left national aspirations at the mercy of Austrian and Italian policy.

For a while Austria-Hungary and Italy, both intent on eventual dominion east of the Adriatic, played the waiting game of mutual assurances; but the Austrian quarrel with Serbia in 1914 was Italy's opportunity; and the hold then gained, and never wholly lost when Serbia gained the support of France, made possible the Italian conquest of 1938 and the recent attack through Albania on Greece.

Albanian Independence and the War of 1914-1918

To give effect to the independence of Albania, the Powers authorized a loan for current needs, under a Commission of Control, and nominated to the throne Prince Wilhelm zu Wied, a nephew of the Queen of Romania. On 7 March 1914 he landed at Durazzo, with Dutch officers and Austrian military support. Essad tried to make use of him, but quarrelled with all parties, and was removed by the Austrians to Italy. The Moslems revolted and were resisted by the Catholic Mirditë; and when the European War broke up the 'Concert' which had appointed him, Prince Wilhelm retreated, without abdicating, on 3 September, and served later in the German Army.

With the outbreak of war, the policies of Italy and Austria diverged, for neither wished the other to control the Adriatic. Austria had begun the war by attacking Serbia and Montenegro. In December 1914 Italy occupied Valona, and the Greeks were still active in the south. The French fleet established itself at Corfu, and after the occupation of Salonica garrisoned Korçë, declaring it an independent republic. Meanwhile the defeated Serbian army was withdrawn through northern Albania to Corfu, their garrisons in Albania were expelled in 1916 by Austrians and Bulgars, and Italian forces occupied the remainder of south Albania. Essad Toptani at Durazzo still claimed the presidency of 'autonomous Albania', but this hardly masked General Ferrero's declaration of the independence of all Albania 'under the shield and protection' of Italy, a direct violation of the secret Treaty of London (1915) which had bound

Italy 'not to oppose' partition such as was contemplated by the Balkan League in 1912. But the revival of Serbia, with the support of France, began to seem the greater threat to Italian projects, and all the more when, in 1918, the Allies advanced up the Vardar valley, the Bulgarians surrendered, and the Austrians withdrew from Albania and all their Slav conquests.

At the Peace Conference an Albanian delegation was led by Mehdi Frashëri. Essad too went to Paris, and was assassinated. Italy demanded recognition of the protectorate declared in 1917; and, when this was refused, offered Korçë to Greece and Scutari to Yugoslavia, reserving Valona, and claiming a mandate over the rest of the country.

This policy was defeated by the Albanians themselves. The National Assembly which had been represented at Versailles was succeeded by a Congress at Lushnje with a programme of complete independence. As Prince Wilhelm had not abdicated, a 'council of regency' was appointed, with two Moslem members, one Catholic, and one Orthodox. The capital was established at Tirana, the Mat tribesmen, under a young and able chief Ahmed Zogu, were commissioned to keep order, and the Italian forces were driven back into Valona, mainly with Italian weapons. In August Italy recognized the Regency Government and evacuated Valona, retaining only a post on Saseno island which had already been acquired from Greece. This withdrawal resulted not only from Italian war-weariness and from the growing apprehensions of the Greeks, but from the discovery that the coast districts were too malarious to permit of Italian colonization. It was only later, between 1928 and 1935, that the Rockefeller Foundation succeeded in reducing the incidence of malaria from 70 to 26 per cent.

But without financial resources or political experience, and with so many internal stresses, there was reason to doubt whether Albanians could manage their own affairs. It was for that reason that the four Powers on the Council of the League of Nations—Britain, France, Italy, and Japan—agreed in advance that if self-government failed, the task of 'restoring independence' should be entrusted by the Council to Italy as agent for the League. Probably nothing could have so inspired the Albanian leaders to settle their differences.

In June 1920 the French evacuated Korçë, and their 'independent republic' was merged in the Albanian State. With most of its territory thus cleared of invaders, Albania was admitted to the League of Nations (17 December 1920).

It was more difficult to expel the Serbs, who had occupied strong

positions in the north and were only prevented by European intervention from advancing on Tirana. In 1920 the Albanians of the Kosovo district, which had been annexed to Albania by the Italians, fearing that when the frontier was defined they would be transferred to Yugoslavia, organized a committee the president of which, Hassan Bey Prishtina, was also for a while Premier of Albania under the Regency. The Yugoslavs found this intolerable and secured his resignation, disclosing thereby their own intentions. In June 1921 they inspired and supported an alternative 'Mirditë Republic' at Prizren, and were only prevented from another invasion because Britain summoned the Council of the League of Nations on 7 November. Two days later the Council of Ambassadors confirmed in principle the frontiers of 1913, on the ground that 'Albania is necessary to the security of Italy', without specifying who threatened it. The 'rectification' of the frontier took long, and inflicted much needless suffering, separating tribes from their pastures and markets; but on 2 August 1926 a Paris protocol completed this delimitation.

Personalities and Policies

At this point account must be taken of the more important Albanian leaders. *Ahmed Zogu*, hereditary chief of the Zogolli family in the Mat district, was descended from the daughter (or sister) of Skanderbeg. The family accepted Islam and was recognized, under Ottoman rule, as hereditary rulers of the Mat group of tribes. In the nineteenth century Xhelal Zogu became suspect, and was interned at Constantinople. His successor Xhemal married a Toptani wife from Tirana, and Ahmed Zogu was born on 8 October 1895. He was educated in Constantinople, but returned to Albania in 1912, resisted the Montenegrin and Serbian incursions, and in 1914 supported Prince Wilhelm, but the jealousy of his uncle, Essad Pasha, forced him to withdraw into Serbia. During the war he fought in the Austrian army. In 1916, with Bulgarian support, he tried to revive the Wied Government, but was interned by the Austrians and, on his release, by the Italians (1918). In 1920 he resisted the Serbian advance to Scutari, and in March took a leading part in the Congress at Lushnje and in the National Government. Till November 1920 he was firstly Minister of the Interior, then Minister of War, and finally of the Interior again. By promoting material reforms, and discouraging irredentist enterprises, he showed administrative ability and independence of popular opinion. But his acceptance of help, first from Yugoslavia and then from the Italians, roused suspicion of his integrity, and in later years

his tolerance of Italian penetration certainly prepared Albania for annexation.

Fan Noli was educated at Harvard, and personally honest and independent of local factions and interests. He entered the Albanian Orthodox Church and became Bishop of Durazzo. In June 1924 he became Prime Minister under the Council of Regency and attempted drastic reforms and modern improvements. His agrarian policy was opposed by the great *bey* landowners, and in December 1924 he was dismissed and left Albania for the United States, where he has settled and become naturalized.

Shefket Bey Verlaci was one of the richest of the landowning *beys* and was opposed to agrarian reform. For a while he was an ally of Zogu, who was engaged to marry his daughter, but quarrelled with him when the engagement was broken off. Compelled to leave Albania in 1922 he went to Rome, became intimate with Fascist leaders, and in 1939 became the first Prime Minister of the Italian occupation.

Mehdi Frashëri is a leading Bektashi Moslem, of liberal and idealist outlook. He was Premier in 1935–1936, went to Rome in 1936 on a special mission of conciliation, and has been President of the Council of Regency under Italian administration (1943).

Colonel Muharrem Bajraktari was head of King Zog's gendarmerie, but failed to co-operate with the British Inspector-General and was dismissed. His revolt in 1935 failed and he withdrew to Yugoslavia, but has since 1939 become an important guerrilla leader.

The Republic and Zogu

After some months of confusion a ministry was formed on 21 December 1921, with Djafar Ypi as Premier, Fan Noli Foreign Minister, and Ahmed Zogu Minister of the Interior. There was an irredentist movement in March 1922, but no open disorder till June 1924. In December 1922 Zogu became Premier, and foreign advisers were brought in, but, for lack of foreign financial support, little could be done. Zogu's support of the landowners against agrarian and 'progressive' interests offended the popular party, and his discouragement of irredentist clamour made him suspected of sympathy with the Serbs. By September 1923 he was in financial difficulties and reluctantly negotiated with Italy for a loan to be administered by a national bank with Italian capital. In February 1924 he found it necessary to resign, and in June he and his friends, mainly of the Moslem centre, were expelled by a concerted revolt of the north and south. The Catholic seat on the Council of Regents was vacant, and

the Orthodox regent appointed Fan Noli, the Orthodox Bishop of Durazzo, Prime Minister. He and his financier, Gurakuçi, balanced the budget, but had no funds for agrarian or any other reforms. He represented Albania at the Assembly of the League in September 1924, but in December Zogu returned from Belgrade with Serbian support and expelled him. On 22 January 1925 a National Assembly, convened by Zogu, proclaimed a Republic and on 1 February Zogu was named regent for seven years.

Zogu's main supporters were his own tribe the Matjë, who are Moslems and could raise 5,500 fighting men from a population of about 20,000. Most of the Moslems of the centre followed him, but he was opposed for a while by Muharrem Bajraktari. The Catholics in the north distrusted him, and the Mirditë chief Gjon Marko favoured Italian intervention, but in general the tribesmen opposed foreign influences of any kind.

Foreign adventurers in the army, chiefly Russians and Yugoslavs, were paid off in 1925. Difficulties with Greece, which wished to put a stop to the intrigues of refugees, and also to include the Moslem Albanians of Epirus in its exchange of populations with Turkey, were settled amicably in September 1926. Yugoslavia rejected Zogu's proposal for a pact of friendship and security, and in November 1926 supported a revolt of the Shalë, Shosh, and Dukagjin in northern Albania. The rebels nearly captured Scutari, but the revolt finally ended in a large migration of the Shosh into Montenegrin territory. Zogu expected no help from the League of Nations, and had been restrained by British intervention in July from conceding a 'right of intervention' and other special privileges to Italy; but on 27 November, when French support to Yugoslavia was confirmed by a fresh agreement, he signed the 'Pact of Tirana' with Italy to maintain the *status quo*. The Albanian deputies duly ratified this pact, although with some misgiving, on 9 December, and it was registered with the League on 8 February 1927, but Yugoslavia protested, since Albania seemed to be forbidden, thereby, from making any similar agreements elsewhere. This was the first open effect of Zogu's urgent need of funds, and of Mussolini's lavish contributions to the personal needs of Albanian leaders. There would indeed have been an attack by Yugoslavia, had not the Powers intervened on 27 April, and again after the arrest on 27 May of a Serb named Jurasković who was suspected of espionage for Yugoslavia at Durazzo. Thereafter Yugoslavia ceased to interfere openly in Albanian affairs, and France, which had previously supported Yugoslav intervention, recognized the growing

significance of Albania by a treaty of friendship (11 November 1927). It is not irrelevant that about this time the Anglo-Persian Oil Company found fresh traces of mineral oil near Valona, and that trade agreements were made with Britain, Germany, Bulgaria, and Czechoslovakia.

But though foreign relations were more amicable, and internal disturbances ceased, the need remained for financial help, and consequently for further complaisance to Italy. On 22 November 1927, just a year after the 'Pact', a new 'Treaty of Tirana' provided for a bilateral defensive alliance and gave opportunity for many Italian encroachments on the administration of the Albanian army: for the more costly that army became, the more dependent was the treasury on Italian loans and subsidies. The immediate purpose of that force was, if occasion should arise, to cover the landing of an Italian army and to hold the passes against Yugoslavia. As a safeguard against this Italian-trained force, Zog kept under arms his own tribe the Matjë, and their trusty neighbours the Dibër, and in spite of Italian disapproval maintained an efficient gendarmerie under British officers. The National Bank of Albania was founded as an auxiliary of the Banca di Roma, and the *Società per lo Sviluppo Economico dell'Albania* (S.V.E.A.) was created to administer large subsidies for harbours, roads, and other public works.

Meanwhile the domestic situation was improving. A political amnesty was declared in September 1927, and the President made formal visits to Scutari. There were negotiations between the Catholic Albanians and the Vatican, and also between the Orthodox Albanian Church, constituted in 1922, and the Patriarch of Constantinople, but the Holy Synod did not grant autocephalous status till 1937.

The Monarchy

In September 1928 long parliamentary discussions led to the revision of the Constitution by a Constituent Assembly and the proclamation of a Monarchy. There was to be a single Chamber, and a Council of State responsible both to the Chamber and to the King. On 1 September Zogu proclaimed himself King of the Albanians, a further annoyance to Yugoslavia, because he seemed to claim thereby the allegiance of Albanians wherever found, although there were obvious precedents for such a title. At this time the Kellogg Pact was signed, and a Treaty of Arbitration with Italy.

Besides public works King Zog's reforms included the expropriation of large estates and the establishment of an Agricultural Bank to assist small landowners. These were bold measures for one who owed his

position mainly to those hereditary *beys*, and their retainers, who had already cut short the political life of Fan Noli. On the other hand, his compliance with Italian demands, especially in regard to the army, was weakening his position with all patriotic Albanians. In January 1931, while King Zog was visiting Vienna for medical advice, he was attacked as he left the Opera House; one of his attendants was killed and another wounded.

The Balkan Conference and the Balkan Entente

Between 1930 and 1933 non-official conferences of prominent individuals were held to prepare for political reconciliations between Greece, Yugoslavia, Romania, Turkey, Bulgaria, and Albania. Discussion of the treatment of the minorities was urged on behalf of Bulgaria and Albania, which had larger minorities of their own people abroad than of aliens at home. The first conference 'in principle only' urged all governments to 'fulfil their mutual engagements'. The second recommended bilateral reciprocal agreements, and Bulgaria and Albania began to negotiate. At the third Bulgaria refused to discuss a Balkan Pact till its grievances were remedied, and withdrew.

In February 1934 the Balkan Pact was signed between the other four states, Bulgaria refusing to sign, and Albania not being invited to do so. The pact provided that no signatory would take political action against a non-signatory without the consent of the rest. The pact would be open to adhesion of every Balkan state, and would take effect when all signatories had agreed to it. Albania was not invited to sign (though King Zog wished to do so) on account of the hostility of Italy to the pact and because of minority difficulties with Greece, which had a secret protocol excusing it from participation in a war against a non-Balkan Power, and was particularly anxious not to give offence to Italy.

Italian Encroachments

In July 1931 Italy promised Albania a loan of 100 million gold francs free of interest, to be repaid only when the budget reached a certain figure. The first annual instalment of 10 million francs was paid, and spent, without providing for the service of the S.V.E.A. loan of 1926, and further large contracts were made. When, therefore, Mussolini withheld subsequent instalments, the financial position of Albania had greatly deteriorated. In November Albania refused to renew the Pact of Tirana, holding it to have been superseded by the Treaty of 1927, but had to ask for a financial moratorium in January

1932. Italy countered in July by making further demands which included the replacement of British gendarmerie officers by Italians, further Italian control of finance and customs, Italian colonization of certain districts, the teaching of Italian in the schools, and monopolies of sugar, telegraphs, and electricity supply.

King Zog rejected these terms, summoned fresh ministers, dismissed Italian instructors, stopped the teaching of Italian at Korçë, and opened negotiations with Yugoslavia. An Italian naval demonstration at Durazzo was a fiasco, and in February 1935 Mussolini made a free personal gift of 3 million gold francs. The suppression of minor disturbances in December 1934 and August 1935 showed that King Zog retained the confidence of his people. Mussolini, therefore, renewed the payments due under the loan of 1931, and Albania declared itself unable to participate in League 'sanctions' against Italy. About this time, too, the Albanian air services were transferred to the *Ala Littoria* of Italy. A fresh direction was given to national policy in this year (1935) when the older Moslem ministers were replaced by the Bektashi liberal and idealist Mehdi Frashëri, with younger colleagues and a more liberal programme, which conciliated factions and promoted social and agrarian reform.

In March 1936 Mehdi Frashëri, and a young European-trained diplomatist Fuad Aslani, were sent to Rome to clarify Italian relations. Did Italy prefer Albania as a resentful vassal or as a grateful friend? A financial and commercial convention was signed on 19 March, and the port of Durazzo was to be greatly improved to bring larger vessels alongside the quays, a facility which was to prove useful to Italy in 1939. A visit of Count Ciano in 1937 aroused popular resentment, and the marriage of the king to the Hungarian Countess Geraldine Apponyi (27 April 1938) made an irretrievable breach with his old ally Shefket Verlaci, who retired to work against him in Italy.

In March 1939 the same manœuvres were repeated. Large payments were made to the Albanian treasury and to the king personally, while Italian administrative intervention, and colonization, continued apace. The Abyssinian and Spanish wars were over, and Germany had annexed Czechoslovakia. King Zog rejected further Italian proposals and was unanimously supported by his Parliament. He sent a special envoy to Rome, and there were derisory 'conversations'. The Chief of the Italian General Staff, General Pariani, who had organized the Albanian army, visited the German General Keitel at Innsbruck. The British Minister at Durazzo reported the arrival of an Italian cruiser and other vessels on 6 April.

The Italian Occupation

Early on Good Friday, 7 April, the Italian fleet bombarded Shëngjin, Durazzo, Valona, and Sarandë, and after heavy fighting, in which the gendarmerie resisted bravely, Italian forces were landed. From Durazzo the Albanians retreated to Tirana, whither tribesmen of all creeds flocked, clamouring for arms. But resistance came too late and was suppressed after about a week. King Zog and his Queen, with the new-born heir Prince Skender, had already left on the second day for Greece. He has claimed that he was charged by his Parliament to represent the continuity of the Albanian State abroad, but to leave one's followers in battle is an act rare in Albanian history.

There had been lavish bribery and largess before the event, and a Constituent Assembly was found ready to offer the crown to the King of Italy, who began to rule through a Viceroy (Luogotenente). A Fascist party was established on 23 April, and on 3 June was announced a new constitution, in which legislation was entrusted, as in Italy, to a Supreme Fascist Co-operative Council, subject to royal veto, whilst Italy assumed control of Albania's foreign affairs.

Naturally conscription and lack of foodstuffs led rapidly to discontent and disorder which served in turn as pretext for larger concentrations of troops. Finally, on 28 October 1940, Italy 'protected the Albanian minority in Greece' by unprovoked invasion of Epirus. Deep as are their differences with the Greeks, the majority of Albanians in this crisis stood aside, evading military service, but not harassing Italian movements. Indeed this was no Albanian war, for it was a struggle between two of those neighbours, equally disliked by Albanians, who had designs on their territory and independence. The valiant resistance of the Greeks, their defeat of the invading Italian columns and the pursuit into Albanian territory are a page, and that a glorious one, of Greek rather than of Albanian history. It suffices to say that by March 1941 Greek forces, having occupied Korçë, Gjinokastër, and Sarandë, threatened Elbasan, Berat, and Tepelenë. The Greek population in Korçë proclaimed a 'Free Albania', which was supported by the Orthodox bishop, and by the Greek forces. But German intervention in Greece (6 April 1941) led to its surrender.

Albania under Occupation

Since the Italian invasion information about Albania has been scanty. Lieut.-General Jacomini di San Lavino, the Viceroy (23 April 1939), formed a cabinet (3 December 1941) in which Shefket Verlaci

was Prime Minister and Minister of the Interior. The Axis Powers, anxious to conciliate Albanian opinion at the expense of Yugoslavia, so altered the northern and eastern frontiers in 1941 as to return to Albania districts which had at one time been predominantly Albanian. These alterations are described in detail in the Introduction (p. 8). East and south of Lake Ochrida, however, the Bulgarians are said to have put in counter-claims, no doubt going back to the days of Simeon and Shishman (p. 180) in support of their contention. Apparently, in consequence, additions to Albanian territory ceased at the north end of Lake Ochrida, and for that reason Fig. 2 and the map in the end pocket show no Axis boundaries south of that point. Albanian opinion, however, continued to be actively hostile in spite of the recovery of so much territory. At the end of 1942 there were many guerrilla groups in the north, in the south, and in the centre, whilst sabotage and even organized resistance were widespread. Young people and students who had been brought up under the monarchy were the most active. Noted guerrilla leaders were Muharram Bajraktari of Luma, former Inspector of Gendarmerie, Major Bilal Nivica Skepari of Berat, Ibrahim Barçi at Korçë, Abas Kufi at Krujë, and Muslim Riza at Tirana—the last three ex-officers. Italian control was limited to main centres and lines of communication.

The news of the collapse of the Fascist regime in Italy was hailed with enthusiasm. Some Italians deserted to join the patriot forces, others threw away their arms and took to the hills, and troops retiring to the coast were harried by the guerrillas. But German units arrived quickly and soon established control over key-points and roads. In September 1943 a Provisional Government was set up under German auspices and a new National Assembly, composed apparently of nominated deputies, met in October. Many of those who took part, or even accepted office, under these German-sponsored arrangements were real patriots, but were unable to escape from German direction. Believing that Albanian interests would be served best by maintaining order until the Allies could expel the occupying Powers, these men have, none the less, compromised themselves by collaboration with the Germans.

On 19 November Mehdi Frashëri, one of the four nominated Regents, notified Switzerland that every act, treaty, convention, or arrangement imposed by the Italian Fascist Government, before or after Italian occupation, had been declared null and void by the National Assembly. At the same time he declared Albanian neutrality.

If Albania was nominally neutral, however, it was far from being

so in spirit. The tragedy of Albanian history has been that all her neighbours, without exception, have coveted her territories and her harbours, and have persistently encroached upon them. For all these neighbours Albanians nurse a resentment which was inflamed by Italian occupation and, in the cases of Yugoslavia and Greece, by Axis propaganda, although the return of bordering, and formerly Albanian, territories served rather to foster the determination to hold them than to make Axis occupation popular. On the other hand, co-operation with Greek and Serbian insurgents modified ancestral distrust and led many Albanian patriots to look forward to a peaceful collaboration with other Balkan peoples so long only as territorial matters were fairly dealt with. This welcome sign of the easing of old quarrels served to concentrate resistance against the German army of occupation.

Meanwhile long-standing internal grievances began to find expression, and action, lesser only in degree than the external. The agrarian reforms, so long necessary and so long deferred, the loss of freehold by so many smallholders, and the low standard of living were the main causes on the one hand; the determination to retain the political and social structure of the past on the other. In a country unfamiliar with the gradual, but never-ending, changes in a free country it is natural that internal stresses should seem to call for violent action in advance of expressed public opinion. Three main bodies emerged—the *Fronti Nacional Çlirimtare* or National Liberation Front, the *Ball Kombëtar* or National Front, and the Legality (Zogist) movement. However much these bodies disagreed in theory, it is certain that their originators were all patriots, eager to liberate the country.

The National Liberation Front, commonly referred to as F.N.Ç., began in 1939. At first the isolated guerrilla groups, resisting Italian occupation, had no common organization or cohesion. Gradually that cohesion grew and early in 1942 began to take effect. A general conference was held at Peza in September of that year, and a country-wide army of resistance—*Levizija Nacional Çlirimtare* (L.N.Ç.)—was born. Practical resistance everywhere strengthened. Side by side with military unification grew up a civil and political organization associated with central, regional, and communal councils elected by the votes of party adherents. Originally of moderate views this party certainly includes extreme elements and has clashed, often in open warfare, with the others. The F.N.Ç., on the expulsion of the Germans, practically held the whole country, and its army, the L.N.Ç., is well armed.

The National Front came into being in 1942, mainly as a counterpoise to the more drastic opinions of the F.N.Ç. Relying upon an earlier intervention by the Allies than was actually possible, this party adopted a 'wait and see' attitude and, embittered by clashes with the L.N.Ç., collaborated to some extent with the Germans. On the expulsion of the Germans the party disintegrated.

The Legality movement is perhaps an expression of tribal loyalty rather than a popular party. As in the other cases, however, it grew under the direction of men determined to work for liberation. Born in the Mati country it follows King Zog as the legal head of the State, has clashed with both the other parties, and is now little more than a name.

Freedom regained

By December 1944 Albania was cleared of Germans. German retreat from the Balkans was already well advanced, whilst Albania itself, lying off the main routes of retreat, would have been evacuated in any case. None the less Albanians themselves, armed and aided by the Allies, did much to hasten their liberation and were in close touch with Yugoslav patriot forces during 1944. Tirana was occupied on 17 November 1944, and Scutari on the 29th, and on 4 December Enver Hoxha, head of the F.N.Ç., announced that all Albania was freed.

Here, then, is a strong and virile people, instinct with a national feeling, well armed, with its future to shape, its very frontiers in doubt, and surrounded by neighbours in much the same position of reconstruction as itself. It is important to know something of the history of these neighbours in order to understand the atmosphere in which final settlement must be effected. For that reason Appendix II gives a brief résumé under the title 'The Neighbours of Albania'.

FIG. 30. *Historical Map: 700 to 300 B.C.*FIG. 31. *Historical Map: c. A.D. 350*



FIG. 32. *Historical Map: c. A.D. 650*



FIG. 33. *Historical Map: c. A.D. 800*



FIG. 34. *Historical Map: c. A.D. 1000*



FIG. 35. *Historical Map: c. A.D. 1190*



FIG. 36. Historical Map: c. A.D. 1200



FIG. 37. Historical Map: c. A.D. 1350



FIG. 38. *Historical Map: c. A.D. 1400*



FIG. 39. *Historical Map: A.D. 1354-1500*

CHAPTER IX

ADMINISTRATION

THE FIRST NATIONAL GOVERNMENTS: 1912-1928

Ismail Kemal Vlora

IN 1912, during the Balkan War, Ismail Kemal Vlora and other nationalists landed at Valona, met a conference of eighty-three leaders from all districts, raised the Albanian flag, and set up a provisional government, which was recognized on 9 December by the Conference of Ambassadors in London. The new state was given provisional frontiers on 22 March 1913, and on 29 July it was agreed that it was to be an autonomous, sovereign, hereditary principality under the guarantee of the Powers, who would nominate a prince. A Commission of Control was sent, to which Ismail Kemal Vlora surrendered his power on 16 January 1914.

Prince Wilhelm zu Wied

The Conference of Ambassadors chose as Prince (*Mbret*), a nephew of the Queen of Romania, Wilhelm zu Wied. He arrived at Durazzo on 7 March 1914, and on 10 April the Commission of Control promulgated an Organic Constitution as (i) a constitutional hereditary kingdom with (ii) neutrality guaranteed by the Powers, (iii) a council of four Ministers responsible to the prince, and (iv) a legislative National Assembly including *ex officio* the heads of the Moslem, Catholic, and Orthodox religions, of the Bektashi sect, and of the National Bank; with three members elected directly by the people in each of seven prefectures (*Kazas*), and ten nominees of the prince: (v) this council would determine the date of elections, every fourth year. The European War, and local difficulties, made this constitution inoperative, and the prince left Albania in September 1914, without abdicating.

The Regency, 1920-1928

On 21 January 1920 a congress of fifty-six delegates at Lushnje demanded independence and territorial integrity, refusing all concessions and mandates without the explicit consent of the Albanian people. The Basic Constitution followed that of 1914, but entrusted the functions of the prince to a High Council of four regents—two Moslems, one Catholic, and one Orthodox. The Congress appointed

a Cabinet, and a Senate of thirty-seven members with parliamentary powers. In the event of conflict between Regency and Senate, a National Assembly was to be summoned, as the regents had no power to dissolve the Senate. The Senate met on 27 March and dissolved itself at the end of the year. New elections were held on 5 April 1921 and the deputies met at Tirana on 21 April. Thus reconstituted, Albania was recognized by the Powers on 9 November 1921, and admitted to the League of Nations on 17 December.

In 1922 the Lushnje statutes were amended in detail by a Chamber of seventy-eight deputies, and confirmed until a constituent Assembly should determine the final Constitution.

The Republic, 1925-1928

After the revolution of 1924 a Constituent Assembly convened by Ahmed Zogu, who had been Prime Minister in 1923, declared Albania a republic, elected Zogu President, and established a new Constitution on 2 March 1925. The president, as in the United States, had wide executive powers, was head of the Council of Ministers, and commanded the armed forces. He had absolute veto on legislation submitted by Parliament, and could dissolve Parliament and hold fresh elections.

The legislative body consisted of a popularly elected Chamber of fifty-seven deputies and a Senate of eighteen, of whom one-third were appointed by the President. The President of the Senate was Vice-president of the Republic. Only the National Assembly—a joint meeting of the Chamber and the Senate—could amend the Constitution, and only on the motion of the president.

This Albanian Republic was recognized by all the Powers. But in the summer of 1928 the president moved and the National Assembly agreed that the whole Constitution should be revised. By an amendment, both Chamber and Senate were to be dissolved on the calling of a Constituent Assembly. Elections for such an Assembly were held on 17 August, and the new Assembly abolished the Republic and voted a new Constitution.

The Monarchy, 1928

On 1 September 1928 the Constituent Assembly elected Ahmed Zogu to be 'King of the Albanians' under the name of Zog I, and on 1 December the new Constitution was voted, as a democratic, parliamentary, and hereditary monarchy, independent and indivisible, with Albanian as official language, no state religion, but liberty of practice

for all faiths. All powers of the State emanated from the Nation. The executive power was exercised by the King through the Government; the legislative power, by the King and a Parliament of one elected Chamber; the judicial power, based on law, by the Courts of Justice, in the name of the King. The only subsequent changes concerned the censorship and the nationalization of schools (1933).

In these provisions the influence is apparent of the Constitution of the Turkish Republic adopted in 1924 (*Handbook on Turkey*, i. 337-8, 370). Many of them may appear to be superfluous from a western standpoint, but they illustrate those oriental traditions and practices with which modern western experience is in principle most completely at variance, and the methods by which Albanian statesmen have tried to dispense with them.

The King was absolute, but exercised his power through his ministers, whom he appointed and dismissed, and might send for trial before the Permanent Political Court (p. 219); he could not pardon them for administrative offences without the consent of Parliament. He commanded all armed forces, and appointed all diplomatic agents, all officers of the army and gendarmerie, and all civilian officials with salaries above 250 Albanian francs monthly. He had authority to declare war, directed policy with the consent of Parliament, and concluded agreements with other states, informing Parliament so far as state interests permitted. Secret clauses of a treaty might not invalidate open clauses.

The Council of Ministers included the Prime Minister and the Ministers of Justice, Foreign Affairs, Interior, Finance, Education, Public Works, and National Economy, and was collectively and directly responsible to the King and to Parliament for general policy, and separately for departmental matters. No member of the royal family, no foreigner, and no one unqualified for election to Parliament might be a Minister. The Prime Minister was chairman, but in emergencies the King presided. Though paid large salaries, ministers were reported to use every occasion, especially after the financial crisis of 1933, to enrich themselves, like the Ottoman officials of the old regime.

The Legislative Power was exercised jointly by the King and one parliamentary Chamber of fifty-six members, one for every 15,000 inhabitants, elected by ballot, for four years. Members had to be Albanian citizens, at least 30 years of age, with all civil and political rights. No political parties were recognized: official candidates were nominated by the King to the electors, who had no alternative but to approve them. In this respect the constitution of Albania contrasted

with that of Turkey, where the People's Party nominates the candidates.

There was one regular session, from 15 October to 15 March, and the budget had to be voted before adjournment by royal decree. The Chamber prepared and adopted legislation and voted the budget, revised the Constitution, and controlled the Government; which, though appointed by the King, was to have the confidence of Parliament.

The Council of State was not a second chamber, but co-ordinated the Executive and the Legislature by preparing and amending laws; this was useful, and perhaps necessary, in a new state with little tradition or experience in drafting legal codes. It was composed of ten members and two assistants, selected on high academic and administrative qualifications by a special committee—the Prime Minister, President of the Chamber, and Minister of Justice—and was irremovable for seven years. The Council had three sections, the first for Justice, the second for Administration, and the third for Finance, National Economy and Communications. It prepared codes, laws, conventions, and concessions, interpreted enactments, and dealt with legal conflicts between departments. All government projects and drafts had to be examined by it, and to be accompanied by its report, before submission to Parliament. All its decisions were, however, advisory.

The Council of Control, another independent body, was established in 1925, and modified in 1928 and 1929, to inspect and control the finances. It had four members, one of whom was a Public Prosecutor, and was assisted by the Controller of Accounts. All were irremovable for five years. They could prosecute state officials and agents, report financial irregularities to Parliament, supervise continuously the budget, income, and expenditure, and explain and justify government proposals to the Chamber.

KING ZOG'S ADMINISTRATION (Fig. 40)

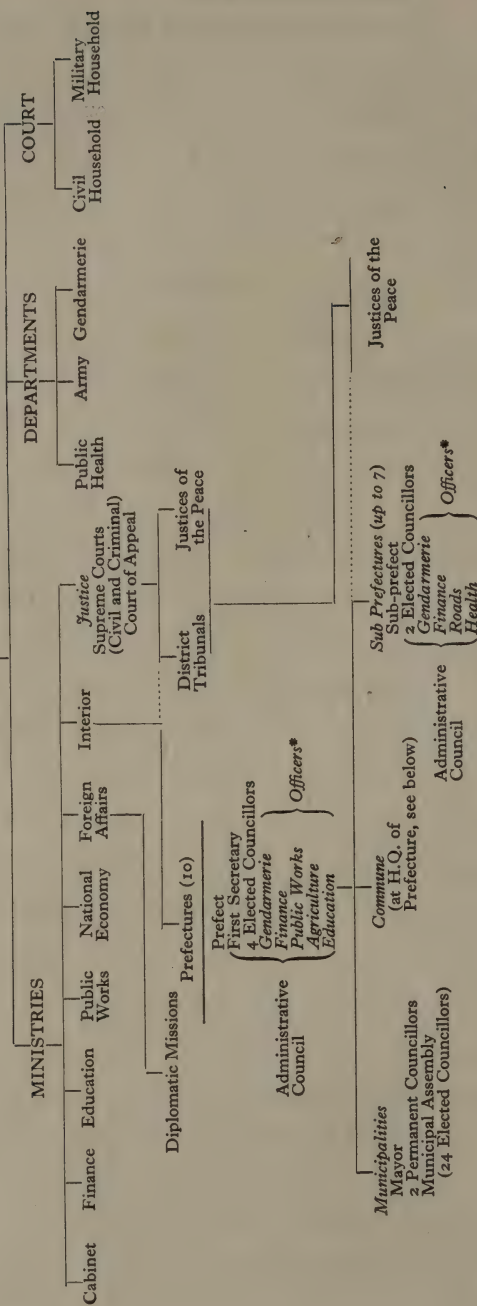
Methods of Government

Within the terms of this constitution, King Zog governed Albania with expedients inherited from Ottoman and medieval rule, such as positive interference with the course of justice, difficult to avoid so soon after a period of anarchy and revolution, personal discrimination in selecting and rewarding officials, and reliance on personal friends and favourites, corrupt and unscrupulous. Even personally upright men, like Mehdi Frashëri, had gained their political experience as

ADMINISTRATION

1939

KING



NOTES

* All offices or officers in italics are under the administrative orders of the local Prefect or officer. They are under their own appropriate minister for technical direction and for interior economy (pay, promotion, &c.).

† Appointed by Decree Royal.

Villages
Headman
2 or 3 elected Councillors or Elders
Village Guard*

FIG. 40.

Ottoman administrators. Corruption was flagrant in all ranks and social classes, and was presumed in fixing salaries and allowances; but there were exceptions, and the British-trained gendarmerie had throughout a high reputation for honesty. There was no public opinion to support officials and Parliament in opposing extravagance or investigating abuses. The King could misuse constitutional safeguards, to dismiss ministries and remove obstacles to his policy. Elections, too, under the system of indirect selection, became automatic ratification of the King's choice of deputies; with the convenience, however, that firebrands and irresponsible persons were precluded from posing as the mouthpiece of popular opinion.

King Zog being himself a great Matja chieftain, the tribal organization was carefully adjusted to the local administration. The *bajraks* became communes, with the *bajraktar* as *kryeplak* (p. 215). New civil and criminal codes were tempered by the unwritten *Canon of Lek* (pp. 134-7). In 1928, by a general *besa*, the King decreed the cessation of blood feuds, and prohibited the carrying of arms by civilians to all tribes except his own (the Moslem Matjë), the Catholic Mirditë, and the Dibër. Many tribal chiefs were conciliated by appointment to posts in the army. The Catholics were inevitably less well disposed to Zog than the Moslems, and the Mirditë chief Gjon Marka later accepted office under Italian rule. But the tribes, Catholic and Moslem alike, seem to have resisted Italian interference, and a Moslem, Muharrem Bajraktari, formerly a high gendarmerie officer, has been a prominent guerrilla leader.

In view of these and other local circumstances, though King Zog made enemies as well as mistakes, he was criticized also among the younger men for refraining from the more drastic methods of Mustafa Kemal in Turkey. In a country so politically immature as Albania, and so financially embarrassed, delay was often inevitable even in giving effect to measures which had been formally ratified.

The Royal Court

King Zog exercised the necessary personal supervision over the central administration through a special body called the Royal Court, which had a general resemblance to the 'Palace' organization elaborated by Sultan Abdul Hamid II. It consisted of two Houses, Civil and Military. The Civil House included the Ministry of the Court, the Chief of Ceremonies, and the Inspectorate, legally entitled, like the 'Great King's Eye' in ancient Persia, to inspect and inquire into all branches of the civil administration. The inspectors were directly

responsible to the King, from whom they received their instructions. The Military House included the King's personal *aides-de-camp*, the Army Department, the Gendarmerie Department, and the Army Inspectorate; composed of technical experts, they prepared and studied projects and suggested administrative improvements.

Ministries and Departments

The ministerial departments with cabinet rank were eight but from time to time they were subdivided or supplemented. Ministers were appointed by the King, but were presumed to have the confidence of Parliament, and were dismissed if this was withheld. The King, being a Moslem, usually appointed a Christian Prime Minister, and the Italians, whose King professed Christianity, have appointed Moslems. Other departments submitted their own budgets to Parliament, like the ministries. The Army and Gendarmerie each had a Commandant-General, the King being constitutionally their head: in the Cabinet the Gendarmerie, as executive for all laws and regulations, was represented by the Ministers of Justice and of the Interior.

The country was divided into ten administrative prefectures, in each of which the ministries had their local officers. For lack of a banking system, administrative payments were made out of receipts from taxation retained in the local treasury, or remitted to it from the Finance Ministry in the capital.

Local Administration (see Fig. 41)

Prefectures. In 1939 there were ten provincial prefectures, to which the Axis Powers added the territories annexed in 1942. The prefect was a subordinate of the Minister of the Interior, but responsible to the King for political control, and for supervision of foreigners and their affairs. His executive was the Gendarmerie, under its local commandants. He was also in touch with the local officers for Finance, Public Works, Agriculture, and Education, and generally for the upkeep of courts, prisons, and other public equipment. His administrative Council included those local officers, a secretary, and four elected members.

The Prefecture included the 'Central Commune' representing the rural area surrounding its capital. Usually, but not always, that capital gave its name to the Prefecture, just as their capitals did to Sub-prefectures.

Sub-prefectures (Nönprefekturat) varied in number from three to

eight. They had their sub-prefects, responsible to the prefect, and were supported by the Gendarmerie. There were Judicial, Financial, Medical, and Public Works officers, and an administrative council with two elected members. The sub-prefect dealt with recruits, petitions, and all local business.

Communes, which replaced the old *Krahiñet* in 1938, had a Communal Council, with a president appointed by the King and a secretary by the Minister of the Interior. Non-official members of the council were elected every fourth year, four for 4,000 inhabitants or less, and one more for every additional 1,000. The communal officers kept registers of population, births, marriages, deaths, and compulsory service on roads, and had limited competence in civil disputes.

Municipalities, which were all, in fact, centres of prefectures, differed from communes in their administration, and dealt directly with the prefect. The municipalities of Tirana, Durazzo, Valona, Scutari, Elbasan, Korçë, Berat, Peshkopi, Kukës, and Gjinokastër had a mayor, council, and assembly. The mayor was appointed by the Council of Ministers, and paid. The council, of two members elected by the Assembly, was advisory, but enacted municipal laws and imposed taxation. The assembly of twenty-four elected members (not officials) met four times a year.

Villages had each a headman or elder (*kryeplak*) with a council of two or three, and an armed constable or village-guard. Some villages, communes, and even districts, where tribal organization persisted, were governed by their own elders, recognized as public officials by the Government.

The Army

In 1926 King Zog agreed that the Italians should assist him in organizing an army, and thenceforward to 1939 there was an Italian military mission in Albania. Its size and importance, however, varied with the political situation. In 1928 the Italian Military Attaché, General Pariani, became head of the Army Department (as the British General Percy was of the Gendarmerie) with about 70 attached Italian officers—afterwards increased to 100—and was given control of the militia also (1930) and of all inspectorates and important units, the Albanian C.O. being relieved of serious duty. Out of 600 Albanian officers, 168 had been trained in Italy.

The significance of the Albanian army was thus political. It was the King's means for maintaining order; it might hold the passes against invasion by Greece or Yugoslavia till Italian or other forces

could be brought in from overseas; above all, it incurred such a scale of expenditure—dictated by Italian advisers—that Albania was kept dependent on foreign—i.e. Italian—financial aid. The nominal commander of national defence, under the King, was an incompetent ex-Turkish officer. General Pariani, afterwards chief of the General Staff in Italy, was able and popular, but the Chief of Staff, formerly an Austrian officer, was ineffective; his deputy was an Italian colonel.

The legal position of the Albanian army was defined in organic laws of 1931 and 1934; the latter, a theoretical Italian project, was never put into effect. Headquarters had sections for mobilization and operations, training, recruiting, administration, and personnel, with technical directorates for artillery and engineering.

There were to be six 'mixed groups' or brigades, each with a peace strength of 18 officers and 420 other ranks; and a war strength of 3,000–3,500 all ranks; together with technical and supply units, and schools. The frontier guards, gendarmerie, and militia would be available in war-time. Of the projected six divisions these 'mixed groups' might have constituted two, if properly staffed, equipped, and amplified by divisional units.

The normal establishment rose from 771 officers and 11,450 men, costing 7,000,000 Albanian francs, in 1930, to 812 officers and 13,305 men, costing 7,800,000 francs, in 1935; then sank to about 12,000 men, costing 6,750,000 francs, in 1936 and 9,634,000 in 1939. The army consisted of 12 ordinary, and 4 motorized, battalions of infantry, 2 regiments of artillery, and 9 engineer companies, besides guards and transport services; with 2 patrol vessels and 4 armed motor-craft. On 29 May 1939 the whole force was merged in the Italian army.

Conscripts were called up by the commune, selected by the sub-prefecture, and trained in districts and surroundings other than their homes, to broaden training and outlook. The annual 'class' numbered about 10,000, of whom 5,000–6,000 were actually enrolled. Military service was for 18 months, with exemption for members of youth organizations (*Enti Kombëtar*); reservists were from 20 to 50 years. This gave an estimated total of 50,000 trained men, and potential war-strength of 150,000. Efficient officers were rare: tribal chiefs would not resign their independence, though the king offered them militia commissions on half pay, for help in national emergency.

Pariani's strategy assumed the support of Italy in the event of a Yugoslav attack, and his policy included three lines of fortification, the employment of 300 Italian officers, and training in four military schools. The results of five years' preparation being inadequate,

Pariani was recalled to Italy in 1933, Italian military as well as financial aid was reduced, and Albanians superseded Italians on the General Staff. In 1937 there were only 16 Italians left; in 1938 only 15; and the efficiency of the army was gravely reduced. When the Italian invasion came, unannounced, in 1939, the Albanian army was incapable of effective resistance.

The Gendarmerie

This force, charged with the maintenance of internal order, was not subordinate to any ministry, but like the army was directly responsible to the King, through an Albanian Director, a British Inspector-General (Major-General Sir Jocelyn Percy), and a small staff of British inspectors, employed by the Albanian State, and retained till September 1938. In each prefecture there was a commandant, in each sub-prefecture a headquarters, and in each commune a post of six or seven men connected by their own telephone system. In each village the village guard, or constable, was licensed by the gendarmerie to carry a rifle, after all other persons (except in Matja, Dibra, and Mirdita) were disarmed.

The officers were to have been trained in Italy, but, for economy, army officers were posted to the gendarmerie in 1935 and 1936. Gendarmes were voluntarily enlisted soldiers, who joined (after 1935) for five years, and could re-engage, if graded first class, for five years, if second class, for one. The normal establishment was about 3,000 men. The urban police force at Tirana, formerly independent, was annexed to the gendarmerie in 1937.

Judicial System

Under the Constitution of 1928 the judicial power was 'exercised by the Courts of Justice, whose decisions, based on Law, are pronounced and executed in the name of the King'. The judges were independent, their only sanction being the laws in force: no other authority, legislative or executive, might interfere. In practice, however, the King occasionally intervened, for reasons of state.

Under the Judiciary Law of 1929, courts and judges were established in each prefecture and sub-prefecture; 40 Justices of the Peace, 10 Tribunals of First Instance (for the ten prefectures), and a Supreme Court, which was also the High Court of Appeal. Judges were selected by a commission, over which the Minister of Justice presided, and were appointed by the King; high academic and professional qualifications were prescribed. Each Justice of a prefecture had an



FIG. 41. Administrative Areas

assistant, and acted also as notary where there was no public notary. A Tribunal of First Instance consisted of a president and two recorders, with a magistrate and a public prosecutor; and like the other courts had criminal as well as civil jurisdiction. The Supreme Court, at Tirana, had a Criminal and a Civil Division, each composed of a president, four members, and a deputy member, with the Attorney-General and his assistant. For criminal cases—in which appeal was obligatory—the Criminal Division acted as Court of Appeal. The Civil Division also acted as a Court of Appeal.

The Ministry of Justice had a very small staff, and the number of judges and public prosecutors was insufficient. There were also very few lawyers or public notaries (140 and 15 in 1936).

Two other permanent judicial bodies sat at Tirana. The *Permanent Political Court* dealt with political offenders, and consisted of two civil magistrates and two military officers, with a colonel as president. This was an emergency provision and was to have lapsed in 1932, but was continued. The *Military Tribunal* consisted of three military officers, but its magistrate and public prosecutor were civilian. The Military Code was the Italian. There was a Court of Appeal, of two military officers, with a general presiding.

Laws

Under Ottoman rule the Moslem *sharia* law was in force, based on the Koran and traditional interpretations of it, and incapable of amendment. The replacement of Moslem law, however, was in no sense a repudiation of Islam as a guide for conduct, but only of statutory rules which had become obsolete, and it had the support of Moslem teachers and professional interpreters, in the *ulema* sitting at Constantinople. In the Ottoman Empire the Civil Code had long been an adaptation of the *Code Napoléon*. In Albania, moreover, Christian and Moslem tribesmen alike observed the *Canon of Lek* (p. 134), rather than either Moslem or Christian Church codes. Until 1928 Albania continued to use the old Ottoman Civil Code. The new Penal Code of 1928 was based on the Italian *Codice Penale*. The Civil Code of 1929 was based on the *Code Napoléon* with articles from the Italian and Swiss Civil Codes. It abolished polygamy for Moslems, but does not seem to have interfered with the customary inclusion of a widow in the household of her husband's brother. Laws regarding barristers, solicitors (1930), and notaries (1931) were based on Austrian and Italian laws, and the Commercial Law (1932) on the Italian 'draft of Vivante' and the German Commercial Code. Civil and Criminal

Procedures were still in course of preparation by the Council of State in 1939. Prisons were provided at Tirana and in each prefecture and sub-prefecture, with a sanatorium at Port Palermo. Capital punishment was by hanging.

That the people of Albania are essentially peaceful and law-abiding is evident, not only from their strict observance of old tribal law and usage, but from the marked improvement in public order and in the administration of justice between 1920 and 1939. It was indeed adherence to obsolete observances that had most retarded the suppression of acts of violence, after individual opinion had begun to outlive them. What was lacking was a public authority sufficiently strong and just to enforce obedience to a more enlightened code.

Education

Under Ottoman rule, writing and printing in the Albanian language were forbidden. Albanian books printed abroad had to be smuggled into the country; lessons in Albanian at the Kyrias Institute for girls at Korçë (1891) were surreptitious; and the Orthodox Church supported Ottoman policy in the interest of Greek culture. The Albanian Literary Society at Istanbul (1899) created an Albanian modification of the Roman alphabet; the Young Turks, after momentary tolerance of a Normal School at Elbasan, returned to Ottoman policy; but the provisional government of Ismail Kemal Vlora (1912) promoted education in the south, and the foreign armies of occupation (1915-1920) opened schools in the areas they controlled. These were co-ordinated by a Ministry of Education under the Regency; an Organic Law for Education was passed (1921) and 452 schools were established, with 647 teachers; the Normal School at Elbasan and the French Lycée at Korçë became secondary schools; and the American Junior Red Cross opened a technical school at Tirana, using English. Boarding-schools were founded (7 with 450 pupils in 1922) for children in sparsely populated highlands. The dialect of Elbasan, intermediate between Geg and Tosk speech, was adopted as standard Albanian. Italian professional schools were founded (1927-1928); the American Near East Foundation opened an agricultural school for boys and a domestic economy school and teachers' course for girls (1930); and a national youth-organization (*Enti Kombëtar Gjlmënie Shqiptare*) was established. In 1933 all education was nationalized, and private or foreign schools were taken over, since the Italian schools were teaching Fascism.

In 1934 the attempt to close Greek schools was condemned by the

Hague Tribunal, and the whole question of Greek schools in Albania, and Albanian schools in Greece, was examined by the League Council, which insisted that the communal Greek schools in the south should be reopened, though as state schools. In that same year the Ministry of Education was reorganized. Elementary education was to be for five years, with courses for illiterate adults. Secondary schools, a Technical Institute, and a Commercial School were provided. In 1936 religious instruction was provided in elementary schools, and, in 1937, adult education for women.

The immediate problem was to provide for the needs of farms and homes under primitive rural conditions. Even in the Kavajë boarding-school for agriculture, pupils were housed in a group of small cottages, conforming to village limitations, with a farm of average size for maintenance, and a social grouping modelled on the patriarchal family with workshops for the customary handicrafts. Public health and sanitation were regular studies. Courses were as short as was consistent with sound basic instruction. Special attention was given to the training of girls, formerly quite neglected, and consequently to the provision of women teachers, indispensable in a Moslem society. In 1938 the percentage of girls attending school was 30; of boys and girls together 36; the former indifference to women's education had therefore almost disappeared. The demonstration school of the American Near East Foundation reduced its course from five years to one, to give elementary teaching in domestic arts to as many as possible. Its flock of sheep produced the wool which was spun, woven, and made into clothing by the pupils. The response and co-operation of the Government to this kind of foreign initiative has been generous and appreciative.

In 1938 the Ministry of Education consisted of a Secretariat and departments for elementary, secondary, and national (*Enti Kombëtar*) teaching, with a Central Council and a Technical Committee for equipment.

Elementary Schools were maintained by law in every town. Villages with 30 children or more had the right to a school provided by the Government, the villagers furnishing the building and equipment. For scattered populations 'school stations' and 'travelling teachers' were provided, and boarding-schools with maintenance scholarships. The course lasted from September to June for kindergarten (4-6) and elementary ages (6-13).

Elementary teachers passed through a Normal School and a Preparatory School for Teachers; and attended the 'refresher' and

'holiday' courses necessary for their isolated work. Buildings were provided by municipalities, communes, and localities allotting 5 per cent. of their corporate incomes through school committees, under the mayor or headman, supervised by the Educational Council of the prefecture. Schools and sports societies were inspected by the Ministry and by Public Health Officers.

The progress of education, in face of grave difficulties, is illustrated in the statistics which follow:

Schools in Albania: all classes (1938)

	Pupils	Teachers	Years' course
<i>Gymnasiums</i>			
Tirana, Scutari, Gjinokastër	1,624	53	8
Girls' Normal School, Tirana	315	..	8
<i>Lycée, Korçë</i>	548	24	9
<i>Normal Schools</i>			
Elbasan (boys).	230	..	4
Tirana (girls)	130	..	4
<i>Commercial Institute, Valona</i>	..	..	4
<i>Technical Institute, Tirana</i>	300	33	4
<i>Agricultural Institute, Kavajë</i>	..	..	4
<i>Lower Schools and Town Schools (18)</i>	5,677	261	..
<i>Secondary schools</i>	5,677	..	..
Women or girls	1,425	..	..
<i>Elementary schools (642)</i>	54,526	..	..
Women or girls	15,778	..	..
<i>Teachers</i>	..	1,612	..
Women	..	318	..
<i>Adult women pupils (Tirana alone)</i>	2,193	..	..

Secondary Education was open to qualified elementary pupils, on payment of registration fees, which might be remitted to the poor. *Technical Institutes* received pupils with nine years' total attendance at Town Schools or four years at a Gymnasium. Scholarships provided free places at all Gymnasias, Normal Schools, and Agricultural and Technical Institutes.

In 1929 the 'Town Schools' were transformed into 'Professional Schools' for agriculture, arts and crafts, and commerce; the agricultural course at the Technical School at Tirana was restored, and Lower Secondary Agricultural Schools were opened at Gjinokastër, Burrel, and Peshkopi.

National Education (Enti Kombëtar Gjilmenie Shqiptare) was an organization founded to deal with the physical, moral, and civil education of the whole youth of Albania, including organized games.

It had a formal resemblance to youth organizations in totalitarian states, but was not run by any party. 'Under strict but paternal discipline, youth learned to love their country, to preserve the manly traditions of their forefathers, and to develop an appreciation in the field of national culture and national art, whether at home or in their profession.' Its headquarters were in the Ministry of Education; it worked through recognized sporting and artistic societies; provided physical training instructors; and established standards of manners and behaviour, and of comradeship between boys and girls, corrective of the traditional low view of women in society. In February 1939 *Enti Kombëtar* was transferred from the Ministry of Education to a new Ministry of Popular Culture with a 'Directorate of Albanian Youth'.

Students Abroad. As there is no university in Albania, scholarships were provided for selected students who followed a course of university study abroad, undertaking to serve the State on their return, in administrative or professional posts. In 1938 there were 16 State scholars abroad and 429 sent at private expense; the larger groups were in medicine (98), law (102), engineering and architecture (40), economics and commerce (44), literature and philosophy (27), theology (22, all private), chemistry and pharmacy (19), dental surgery (14), agriculture (11).

The National Library and National Museum (1922), under the Ministry of Education, were housed at Tirana and administered together. In 1938, 2,800 readers consulted 10,217 books. The 'Library for Youth' founded by Elizabeth, Countess of Carnarvon, had its own building and garden, and a library of 4,000 volumes, and was much frequented.

The National Lycée at Korçë was rebuilt in 1938 by private benefaction from a native, Thoma Turtulli. The old Normal School at Elbasan (1909) was to be rebuilt by the Ministry in 1939.

The Kyrias girls' school at Tirana was founded by three trained women from Korçë, with American help, and received boarders as well as day-pupils. Another school on western lines was founded by the American Junior Red Cross.

SOCIAL AND MEDICAL SERVICES

In Chapter VI—Public Health—will be found a description of health conditions and of disease. Such vital statistics as are trustworthy are given there. A brief summary of the recent administration of medical services follows.

- In 1939 the Director-General of Public Health, dependent on the

Ministry of the Interior, administered hospitals, dispensaries, ambulance stations, travelling medical officers to visit villages, and endowments for medical students training abroad.

Hospitals under state management were at Tirana (300 beds), Korçë and Valona (60), Scutari (50), Elbasan and Gjinokastër (30), Berat and Peshkopi; a sanatorium at Voskopojë; till 1932 a municipal hospital at Përmet (20), and from 1932 a malaria hospital at Ardenicë, later a dispensary. In 1936 there were 133,037 patients, against 26,247 in 1925. The central hospital at Tirana was modern and well equipped, and had a Röntgen Institute, maternity wards, tubercular wing, and pharmaceutical service, whilst near by was the Chemical and Bacteriological Institute. At Korçë the hospital was a modern benefaction. At Valona an older hospital, well placed and well housed, overlooked the bay. Dispensaries were attached to all hospitals, and a separate one was at Kurvelesh. Ambulance stations and medical officers were provided in all municipalities, in addition to the hospital or dispensary services. Travelling medical officers, instituted in 1932, visited the villages, examining schoolchildren and dispensaries, with the help of the gendarmerie. Their local experience and personal reports were the basis of the social services. Children's ambulance centres at Tirana and Scutari diffused elementary hygiene among illiterate mothers, and demonstrated the prevalence of malaria, under-nourishment, and hereditary diseases.

The *Institute of Hygiene* at Tirana, founded in 1938 with the co-operation of the Rockefeller Trustees, was the centre of the general control of malaria and river-pollution, with malaria stations in the principal towns. In the same year these towns contributed 24,000 gold francs towards maintenance, and government subsidies were 65,000 gold francs.

The Albanian Red Cross, though a private institution founded in 1922, receives state support and revenues from stamps, lotteries, and trust estates (including the port revenue of Sarandë, formerly the property of the Sultan). In 1938 its revenue was 492,000 gold francs, expenditure 447,000 gold francs. It maintained at Tirana a dispensary, dental clinic, ambulance, soup-centres, orphanage, and school for nurses, directed by a Frenchwoman. In 1938 an 'Old People's Rest House' was projected at Tirana and in 1939 a municipal organization for similar purposes.

Radio and Press

Radio. Before 1938 many Albanian families had receiving-sets;

but Bari was the only station broadcasting news in the Albanian language, and Albania was the only European country without international telephone service.

In 1938 a state radio-station was installed outside Tirana with a studio in the Town Hall, and was inaugurated by King Zog on 28 November for news, and also for short talks on public activities and problems. It was to be under the projected Ministry of Popular Culture. In February 1939 there were two daily broadcasts and longer programmes on Sundays.

Press. In a country where illiteracy is general, and other literature difficult to obtain, the press has an influence far greater than its circulation, for the literate few read freely to neighbours and comment on news and policy.

Between 1882 and 1939 some 160 newspapers were published in Albania, mostly of short life. Without advertisement revenue, they represented either personal views or subsidized opinions, necessarily favourable to Government, editors and publishers alike running grave risk of punishment for free speech. There are strict qualifications for editorship, including a bond for 10,000 gold francs.

The Constitution of 1928 contained safeguards for the liberty of the press; but in 1933 it was amended to enable the Government to impose a preventive censorship, as it usually did; the liberal Ministry of Mehdi Frashëri (1935-1936) was a rare exception.

Tirana in 1935 had the conservative *Gazeta Besa* of the 'old guard' politicians, and the more democratic *Vatra*; but in 1936-1937 these were superseded by *Drita* and *Shtypi*, which continued till April 1939. Korçë had the *Gazeta e Korçës*, Valona the *Ëjeta e Ré*, and Gjinokastër the weekly *Demokratia*; the last two were progressive.

Weekly and monthly reviews were individual ventures, usually progressive, outspoken, and short-lived, such as *Arbënia* (c. 1930), *Minerva* (1936) and *Perpjekja Shqiptare* ('Albanian Struggle', 1938), and *Java* (1939), all by the same editor. In Scutari the Jesuits and Franciscans had been printing Albanian books since 1870 and had their own reviews. The Moslem classical review *Zani i Naltë* ('The High Voice') was published in Tirana. Valona in 1938 had the monthly *Kombi* ('Nation'), literary and intellectual. The Government publishes the *Fletorja Zyrtare* ('Official Gazette'), *Bujqësia* ('Agriculture'), and *Jurisprudenca* and the school reviews *Normalistë* (at Elbasan) and *Vatra i Rinis* ('Heart of Youth').

Albanian periodicals published abroad, free-spoken and influential, included in 1938 the *Dielli* of Boston, U.S.A., *Albania Nova*, *Kosova*,

and *Kuvendi Kombëtar* of Romania, and *Gazeta Shqiptare* of Bari, a supplement to the *Gazzetta do Mezzogiorno*.

THE ITALIAN ADMINISTRATION AFTER 1939 (see Fig. 42)

The Main Changes

In the Italian attack on Albania political action followed promptly on military. On 12 April the Albanian Chamber, convened as a Constituent Assembly, accepted Italian demands; the abrogation of King Zog's Constitution and regime, the formation of a government led by King Zog's personal enemy Shefket Bey Verlaci, the close association of Albania with Italy under fresh treaties, and the offer of the Albanian crown to the King of Italy. On the following day the Fascist Grand Council of Italy approved this union of the crowns. A Customs and Currency Convention followed, Albanian customs to be administered by Italian officials. The Albanian gold franc was to be exchanged at 6.25 Italian *lire*. Albanian foreign affairs were to be conducted by Italy. Italians in Albania and Albanians in Italy were to have the same civil and political rights as at home. On 22 April the Italian Minister in Tirana, Francesco Jacomini di San Savino, was appointed the King's representative, i.e. Viceroy (*Luogotenente*). By 29 May there was an Albanian Fascist Party, and its Secretary became a member of the Italian Chamber of Fascists and Corporations. On 3 June 1939 Shefket Bey Verlaci received in Rome the new Constitution. The official language was to be Albanian, the Fascist emblem was inserted in the Albanian ensign, all religions were to be respected and their practices guaranteed. More important, the Albanian army was incorporated in the Italian, foreign relations were undertaken by Italy, and members of the Albanian diplomatic and consular services, if they joined the Fascist Party, were merged in the Italian services. A permanent committee of two Italians and two Albanians was to be consulted on all Albanian interests. Italian ranks and distinctions were conferred on eminent Albanians who collaborated.

The new Constitution provided for a Council of Ministers to advise the Viceroy, who had also an Albanian 'chief adviser'. The latter had a corps of advisers in the ministries and was Inspector-General of the Albanian Fascist Party.

The administration of Justice, formally unchanged, was supplemented by a High Court, of nine members appointed by the King, to try Cabinet Ministers impeached by the Superior Fascist Corporative Council. Judges were nominally independent and irremovable, and

KING VICTOR EMMANUEL
and MUSSOLINI

Note. Albanian personnel printed in upright, and firm line
Italian personnel printed in italics, and dotted line

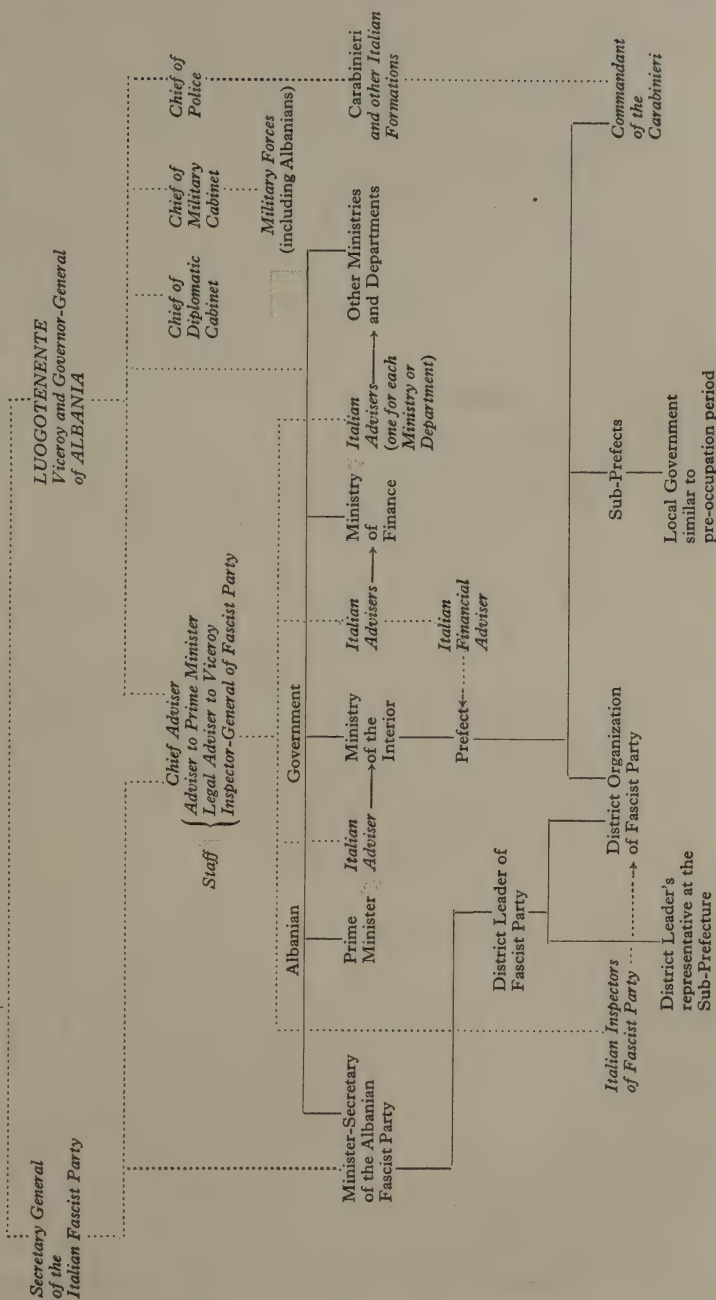


FIG. 42.

Extraordinary Tribunals might only be established 'in cases laid down by the law'.

The Legislative Chamber was replaced by the Superior Fascist Corporative Council, summoned and prorogued by the King, who nominated its president and vice-president. The King might veto or refer back bills submitted by the council. The King might also issue decrees, which had the force of law before they were ratified by the council. The council consisted of sixty-six members appointed by the King, on the proposal of its president and of the secretary of the Albanian Fascist Party: this exactly conforms to Italian procedure. Essentially the council consisted of two bodies, the Central Councils of Corporative Economy and of the Albanian Fascist Party.

The new Cabinet, on 13 October 1941, established a mixed commission of Italians and Albanians for public works and other duties which had been temporarily performed by an Italian Under-Secretary for Albanian affairs: and in 1943 was formed a 'permanent representation' of Albania in Rome consisting of the President of the Council and two others.

The districts annexed to Albania from Yugoslavia in August 1941 were also at first under a Minister of Liberated Territories, but in February 1943 this post was abolished.

Constitutionally, then, the Albanian State was an independent kingdom, in personal union with Italy through the King; in administrative union for foreign affairs, defences, and customs; and in political union through its Fascist basis. But control was in Italian hands, for the Viceroy was a servant of the Italian Government, with legislative initiative and power to suspend the Constitution; the armed forces were essentially Italian; the Italian Government had a 'chief adviser' to the Viceroy as well as an 'adviser' in every ministry, prefecture, and sub-prefecture; and the Albanian Fascist organization was controlled by that of Italy. The Italians also controlled the administrative boards concerned with internment and confiscation; and the Commandant of the Gendarmerie was an Italian. All real power, therefore, legislative and judicial, was subject to the will of the executive; and the executive to the head of the Fascist Party.

There were, as before 1939, Ministers for the Interior, Finance, Justice, Education, and Public Works; the Ministry of National Economy was divided between 'Commerce and Industry' and 'Agriculture and Forestry'; and King Zog's projected 'Directorates of the Press, Propaganda, and Tourism' were merged in a single Ministry of Popular Culture, with very wide functions including Archaeology

and Arts and the supervision of Albanians abroad. The Secretary of the Albanian Fascist Party was also, like the Prime Minister, a member of the Council of Ministers.

Local administration remained formally as before, the mayors of municipalities, like the prefects and sub-prefects, being appointed by the Government. But the Italian 'advisers' were in effective control.

The Fascist Party

As in Italy, membership of the Fascist Party was made obligatory for all government officials, and for students in the higher schools. The Party was controlled by its Minister-Secretary, appointed by the Viceroy to receive and transmit to the members the orders of the Italian Fascist Secretary in Rome. The Fascist Party had centres in all prefectures, sub-prefectures, and communes, controlled by nominated representatives; and there was a 'youth organization' which superseded the *Enti Kombëtar*, with a *balilla* for boys under 14, and an organization for girls.

The function of the Fascist Party was to train the Albanian people in docility to Italian Fascism: it was therefore intolerable to Albanian sentiment, and to disguise its proceedings it was officially superseded in February 1943 by a 'Guard of Greater Albania', referring to the newly annexed territories; but without change or success.

The position of the Albanian Fascist Party in Albania, as in Italy, was affected by the fall of Mussolini, because members took an oath of allegiance to him personally; and on 18 August 1943 it was announced that the Albanian Fascist Militia, which was commanded by an Italian general, had been replaced by a new Voluntary Militia.

Army, Gendarmerie, and Carabinieri

In 1940 the Albanian army was absorbed into the Italian. A battalion of 'Albanian Guards' was stationed in Rome. Albanian units on the Italian side in the war with Greece were unreliable, and in January 1941 were reorganized as an independent 'Skanderbeg group' instead of being attached to Italian divisions. In February 1943 a separate Albanian army was reconstituted, and sent to Italy in relays for training.

The Gendarmerie, which had remained under Albanian officers since the departure of its British officers in September 1938, was absorbed into the Italian *Carabinieri* (military police) as a single command under the Italian commander-in-chief. It then consisted of about 3,000 men in two 'legions', but a third 'legion' has been added.

In January 1943, to conciliate Albanian opinion, the Gendarmerie and Carabinieri were separated again and given distinct functions, the Carabinieri being confined to urban duties.

In the new territories 'Customs and Frontier Guards' were instituted on the Italian model, but in February 1943 were put under the orders of the Albanian Government.

The *Albanian Fascist Militia* was recruited from Albanian and Italian members of the Fascist Party; it was under the personal command of Mussolini, took part in the war with Greece, and has organized and repressed local disturbances as required.

The *Forest Militia* and various irregular bands served to perpetuate local hostility on the Serbian and Greek frontiers.

Judicial System

In form the courts remained as under King Zog. The judges were Albanians, except in the Political Court at Tirana, which consisted of Italian military officers. The Italian forces had their own courts martial. In practice, Italian political interests intervened as might be found useful.

Education

Teachers and pupils alike were found to be nationalist and untrustworthy from the Italian standpoint. In 1940 all secondary schools were closed. The dearth of teachers was aggravated in 1943 by drafting trustworthy teachers into the new schools of the annexed territories, and was only partly met by lowering the standard both of experience and loyalty to Italy. Efforts were made to maintain the technical and professional schools, and to supplement official education by Fascist youth organizations for all ages. For study abroad Albanians were only allowed to go to Italian universities.

Religions

Officially all religions were tolerated as before. But the premiers under the Italian rule were Moslems. Provocations to religious disputes were unsuccessful. The Archbishop of Scutari, Mgr. Thaçi, held aloof from the Italian regime, but the Bishop of Lesh, Mgr. Bumçi, who was pro-Italian in 1918 and was a regent, collaborated. In 1941 the Moslems were induced to replace their Grand Mufti, Dr. Bexhet Shapati, by a Council of *ulema* (men learned in the law of Islam), and to make some fresh appointments. The leader of the Bektashi, Niazi Dede, was murdered in January 1942, since when

there have been many Bektashi guerrillas. In the new territories the inhabitants were mainly either Moslem Albanian or Orthodox Serbs, both with a long history of forcible displacement. Italian policy favoured the Albanians.

Press, Radio, Telegraphs, and Telephones

The Tirana radio station established in 1938 was maintained and supplemented for telegraphy and telephone use, as well as for a broadcast programme. After December 1939 it was administered by an Italian-controlled corporation. The long-distance station, for Brindisi, Zagreb, and Vienna, was dismantled.

At the invasion all Albanian newspapers ceased to appear. The Italian-controlled *Fashismi* changed its name to *Tomori*, but retained its politics. There were two magazines, *Mesagjeri Shqiptarë* and *Roja Kombëtare* (1943), and several 'underground' journals. Abroad the *Dielli* ('Sun') is the organ of 'Vatra', the Pan-Albanian Association of America and of Bishop Fan Noli; the *Liria* ('Freedom'), of the 'Free Albania' Association and of its President, Konstantin Chekrezi. Both are published in Boston, U.S.A.

Telegraph and Telephone communications have been extended to about 100 telegraph offices and about 1,000 telephones, but unnumbered and unlisted. There are overland telegraph lines to Greece and Yugoslavia.

Social and Medical Services

The Albanian Red Cross continued its work with changed staff. In February 1942 an Albanian mission was sent to the annexed territories.

Annexed Territories

The *Annexed Territories*, at first under a High Commissioner, were transferred to a ministry in December 1941, which was soon afterwards dissolved as if its work was done. But Italian and German military 'controls' remained. The administrative and educational services were being assimilated to those of Albania, and use was being made of Kosovar officials in Albania itself.

The Greek frontier district *Çamëri* seemed to be still under Italian military rule.

Collaborators and Patriots

Many able Albanians entered the administrative services, but few

accepted political responsibility, and those few were chiefly personal enemies of King Zog, Kosovars grateful for liberation, or long-term nationalists tolerant of Italian development of Albania's resources. Several, after shorter or longer experience, passed over to the guerrillas. A few, however, remained personally or financially loyal to Italy.

Prime Ministers have been numerous and transitory:

April 1939–December 1941.	Shefket Bey Verlaci, personal enemy of King Zog, a rich landowner opposed to agrarian reform.
December 1941–January 1943.	Mustafa Merlika of Krujë, nationalist and former colleague of Fan Noli.
January 1943–February 1943.	Eqrem Libohova, long devoted to Italian interests: Foreign Minister of King Zog 1939.
February 1943–May 1943.	Maliq Bushati.
May 1943.	Eqrem Libohova again.

Since the Italian invasion irregular warfare had never ceased, but as long as there were large Italian forces in Albania it was ineffectual. With the withdrawal of these at the end of 1941, systematic guerrilla bands began to appear. Among the earlier leaders were Muharrem Bajraktari, former Commandant of Gendarmerie, recently in co-operation with the Yugoslav bands of General Mihailovic; Major Abas Kupi (Bazi i Canes), Commandant of Gendarmerie at Durazzo in 1939, since active in Krujë district. Throughout 1942 sabotage and raids on depots were frequent, and on 1 September a *besa* was sworn between all the bands. Military transport was disorganized by intimidating the drivers. Active centres were around Martanesh, Elbasan, Valona, and Frashër. Schoolboys in many districts co-operated openly. In 1943 resistance was extended and consolidated. There were three main types, *Partisans* connected with the communist party, with a strong political aspect, *Volunteers of Freedom*, essentially nationalist, *Guerrillas* raised in emergencies from the peasantry by either of the foregoing. The term *Ceta* for a guerrilla unit has no political implication in Albania. There was occasional co-operation with Yugoslav and with Greek guerrillas.

There were several 'underground' newspapers. The Partisan Communist *Zëri i Populit* ('Voice of the People'), the *Bashkimi ben Yuqinë* ('Strength through Unity') of the National Liberation Movement, and the *Lufta i Çlirimit Kombëtare* ('Struggle for National Liberation') of the National Front ('Ball Kombëtar').

GERMAN INTERVENTION

After the collapse of Fascist Italy Italian control soon vanished, but German troops speedily occupied important centres and communications, and, early in September 1943, set up a so-called 'Albanian National Committee', which, in turn, nominated a 'Provisional Executive Committee' of six members. Ibrahim Biçaku, a Moslem who had been a Deputy during King Zog's reign, became head of this government, and elections for a new National Assembly were announced for October.

This new Assembly duly met in October, though without election, and was made up of Deputies of the 1937-1939 Parliament, with the addition of some nominated pro-Germans. Its first step was to appoint a Regency of four, representative of Orthodox and Roman Catholic Christians and of Sunni and Bektashi Moslems. The four, apparently very reluctant, Regents were Mehdi Frashëri, who has already been mentioned, the Bektash Moslem; Lef Nosi, the Orthodox; Fuad Dibra, the Sunni Moslem; and Father Anton Harapi, a Franciscan. Rexhep Mitrovica, from the Kosovo area, was appointed Prime Minister. Administration followed upon the lines of Fig. 40, p. 212. Inevitably this government was forced, more and more, into dependence upon the Germans, and the more so since it sought to introduce precautions against Communism and therefore found itself in conflict with the 'National Liberation Front' (*see* p. 201). It lasted until the end of June 1944, by which time one Regent had died, whilst another had resigned, as had also Mitrovica and his cabinet. In July, and again in September, new governments were formed, but German power was waning, whilst patriots were turning more and more to the fighting leadership of the National Liberation Front. On 27 October the Regency and the Government resigned. Political power followed military into the hands of the National Front.

The first conference of this National Liberation Front was held in September 1942. A 'Central Council of Resistance' was accompanied by, and worked through, regional and communal councils, thus following upon the precedents of 1939. In July 1943 a second conference was held at Labinoti. At this conference a Statute and Regulations were drawn up for the Councils of National Liberation. The statute laid down that: (1) in the liberated areas, the National Liberation Councils should represent the civil power of the land and work in close collaboration with the military staff of the National Liberation Army; (2) the movement should fight for an independent

Albania; (3) there should be no interference with private property and private initiative in industry; (4) no radical changes should be made in the social organization; (5) communal and state wealth should be considered as the property of the National Liberation Councils in the areas concerned; (6) in liberated areas the paying of taxes in such form as farm produce and fines should cease; (7) the National Liberation Councils should be the nuclei of the political power of the Albanian people; and (8) the National Liberation Councils should have as their duty the organization and bringing together of the entire Albanian population without religious, regional, or party distinction in their war against the foreign ruler. Full advantage has been taken of the seventh clause.

In April 1944 the National Liberation Front (Alb. *Fronti Nacional Çlirimtare*, or F.N.Ç.) held elections throughout the country, and the elected Deputies gathered at Përmet in May. Enver Hoxha, Commander-in-Chief of the F.N.Ç. army, became Prime Minister. In October a further conference was held at Berat, and Enver Hoxha announced the formation of a new government. This government it is which controls the destinies of Albania during the first days of a reconquered independence. No doubt much of its administration is provisional, and precisely what form it takes is not known.

ALBANIANS ABROAD

In the troubled years before 1914 many Albanians emigrated to the United States, but those who had kept touch with their homes returned after 1918. Of these, some were driven to America again by disagreement with King Zog's Government, others are still in Albania, and some were interned in Italy. A few worked with the Italians. The Albanians in America are therefore disorganized and denationalized. Their chief centre is in Boston. Their leaders are Fan Noli, now an American citizen, Bishop of the Orthodox Albanians in America, and President of the Albanian Society 'Vatra' (The Hearth); and Konstantin Chekrezi, secretary of the Commission of Control in 1912, a graduate of Harvard, critical of King Zog's regime, and leader of the 'Free Albanian Movement'.

In England King Zog and his family and some personal dependants live in non-political retirement; and a few of his political opponents are also settled here. The Anglo-Albanian Association includes most of the British friends of the Albanian people, and there is another group, the Friends of Albania, formed by a supporter of King Zog.

Though officially Italy had control of Albania's foreign relations, there was an Albanian Minister, appointed by King Zog, in Turkey, and a Chargé d'Affaires in Egypt.

Among these expatriated Albanians and friends of Albania, main currents of opinion are:

- (1) King Zog claims, as *de jure* sovereign, to represent Albania, and to be restored; but he has agreed with 'Vatra' to leave the future, after his restoration, to the liberated people.
- (2) 'Vatra' is nationalist, wants freedom first, and would prefer a republic, but recognizes King Zog as national leader meanwhile, and has accepted a subsidy from him.
- (3) 'Free Albania' repudiates King Zog, but collaborates with 'Vatra' for the liberation of the country.

CHAPTER X

RESOURCES: AGRICULTURE, FISHERIES, FORESTRY, AND MINERALS

I. AGRICULTURE

FARMING is the chief economic activity, occupying over 80 per cent. of the population. Methods, however, are primitive; there is but a single spring crop, and not work enough for all at every season. Consequently many find occasional work in forestry, fishing, or casual employment in the towns, whilst others seek seasonal or longer-term work in other countries.

To understand the agricultural position account must be taken of its long history. The primitive communal ownership of land persists for forests, pastures, and fisheries, with jealous resistance to encroachment by neighbouring groups or individuals. Much of the cultivable land, however, has long been in freehold ownership of a family, every member of which has customary tasks under the direction of the headman, and most houses have a plot of ground for garden crops. Farms vary in size with the value and scarcity of the land, and in the more fertile and populous districts average from 3 to 7 hectares (roughly 7 to 17 acres). The popular ideal is as much land as the family can cultivate with one span of plough oxen. In the process of subdivision, and to remedy over-population, many men have lost their lands and are shepherds, graziers, or hired workers, usually paid at least partly in kind, and little regarded. Many emigrate, prosper abroad, and bring their savings home, when they rejoin their family group.

In a country with variable seasons and primitive methods the poorer freeholders tend to become dependent for seed-corn, or even bread-corn, and for cash to pay taxes and other imposts, on the richer landowners, or on money-lenders and merchants in the towns. Sooner or later they may have to sell their freehold, remaining on the land as tenants and paying a share of the produce as rent. As there has been no effective restriction on usury, the condition of the tenant peasantry has deteriorated, and their number has increased to about 40 per cent. of the farming community. A landlord lives either in a town or in a large fortified house (*kullë*) on his estate, but does little to benefit his tenants or to improve cultivation. Landed gentry intermarry and form a compact aristocracy; and, as many of these *bey*-families are descended from Turkish invaders, they are predominantly orthodox Moslems. The Christian churches and monas-

teries, and especially the *teqe* colleges of the Bektashi Moslems, also hold large estates, and have a rather better reputation as landlords.

In recent times there have been projects of agrarian reform, advocated by the orthodox leader Fan Noli, and by King Zog, at the risk of opposition from the *beys*. King Zog's project left each landowner 40 hectares (nearly 100 acres) for each male member of his family. Of the remainder, one-third was expropriated, but paid for at the rate of 20 gold francs per hectare (10s. 8d. per acre), whilst the remaining two-thirds were left to the owner on condition that, if he let them on lease, he must share with the tenant the cost of irrigation and other improvements. To finance this reform an agricultural bank was founded with a capital of 5,000,000 gold francs (£330,000). Agrarian reform is the most urgent political question in Albania, and indispensable to material progress.

It is inevitable that an agricultural report should be supported by tables of statistics. Such as appear hereafter must, however, be consulted with reserve. If they illustrate the order of production they will have served their purpose. In detail they are untrustworthy, partly because no organized and centralized government has, as yet, achieved a complete and reliable record, partly because fact may have been tempered by enthusiasm, and partly because provinces temporarily annexed from Yugoslavia may have spoilt the figures for comparative use.

Area under Cultivation

Of the total area of the country (6,805,000 acres) it was estimated in 1938 that about 11 per cent. was arable and fruit-carrying land (6% arable, 5% vineyards, olive-groves, and gardens); 31 per cent. was covered by pasture, both alpine and marshland; 36 per cent. by woodland and forest; 11 per cent. was potentially productive but uncultivated, and the remaining 11 per cent.—snowfields, rock surfaces, sand-dunes, lagoons, and the like—was barren and unproductive. Fig. 43 illustrates the position.

It will be seen at once that only a small proportion of the total area is arable land. The area under cultivation has been increased in recent years. Agricultural methods and equipment have been improved in the more accessible regions of the country. Land potentially productive if brought under the plough (11% of the total area) varies in extent from 32 per cent. in Elbasan province to as little as 2 per cent. about Scutari and Kosovo, but some of this land is reserved for pasture, which is more profitable to the owners.

Distribution of Agriculture

As about two-thirds of Albania are over 3,000 feet in altitude, and the coastal plain is marshy and malarious, agricultural areas are confined to the upper courses of the rivers, to the plateaux of the centre and

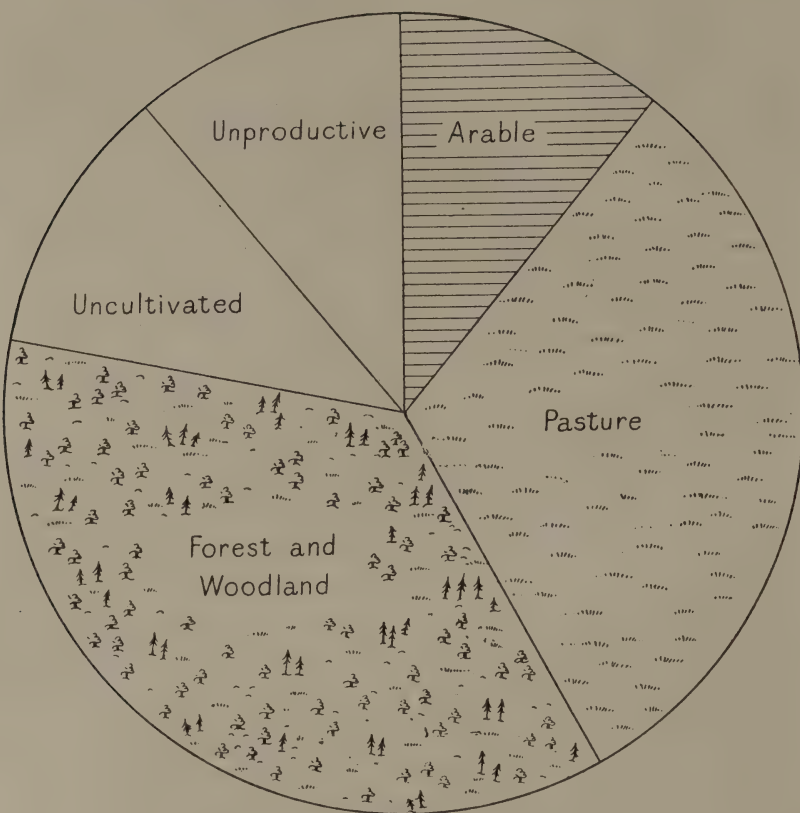


FIG. 43. *The Use of the Soil*

east, the Korçë basin, and the neighbourhood of lakes Ochrida and Prespa, wherever the soil is deep enough for tillage and safe from floods.

An Italian authority, writing twelve years ago, uses the following words:

‘Albania is a country endowed with resources that have not been sufficiently utilized. With modern methods of cultivation it could support normally a population considerably larger than the actual population. But it is also true that to bring agriculture up to the level it has reached in other

civilized countries very large capital would be needed for machinery and supplies. There is not enough of this. There exist very fertile plains but they are cursed with malaria and are uninhabitable. To make them sanitary would involve heavy expense with long preparation, and skill and method in carrying out the work.'

Since that time the Rockefeller Institute has reduced the incidence of malaria by draining marshes in certain places. Other work has been undertaken which directly or indirectly improves agriculture. Several years ago an Italian firm, the *Ente Industrie Agrarie dell' Albania*, obtained a concession of 3,000 hectares, or 7,413 acres, near Shijak just off the Durazzo-Tirana road. A large part of these lands, previously pasture, was drained and irrigated. Good crops grew there and found a ready market in Durazzo and Tirana. Examples, such as this, show what can be done, given capital and skill, both of which the native Albanian still lacks. The Government itself owned more than 50,000 hectares or 123,600 acres of the best land between the rivers Shkumbî and Vjosë and, before the Italian occupation, was introducing more modern methods of cultivation, a matter which will be discussed later.

Agricultural Methods. In general, however, Albanian agricultural methods have changed little in the course of centuries. Until recently the owners or tenants counted themselves fortunate as long as the land yielded sufficient food to maintain a family from harvest to harvest. But often they struggled through grim times before the next harvest was ready for the sickle. Yet the same primitive methods of planting and reaping continued year after year, for there was none to help or instruct. It may be that in the past the blood feuds, in which every family was more or less involved, played a greater part in family life than the cultivation of the soil. When the choice lay between sudden death at the hand of an enemy and hunger which only endures for a season, the answer was obvious. Even to-day little interest is displayed in producing more food than will suffice for home consumption.

The most common implements are a wooden ox-drawn plough fitted with an iron share but without a mould board, and a broad mattock which is fashioned almost as a hoe and is used particularly on rock-strewn slopes. An iron plough is in use in southern Albania. Women do most of the work in the fields, overburdened though they may be with other cares; men are more concerned with the cattle, and the watch and ward which blood feuds make imperative.

The same crop is resown on the same field until the yield begins to

fail, and about 20 per cent. of the land is left fallow in any year. In the more remote districts land is allowed to fall out of cultivation for two or more years if its fertility shows signs of exhaustion.

Fields are often unfenced, and valuable crops may be trampled by cattle or destroyed by goats. Methods of gathering the harvest are primitive and wasteful; but in the south and in the coastlands better methods have been introduced.

Food Supplies

With such methods the country is not entirely self-supporting. Nevertheless Albania exports some foodstuffs (cheese, eggs, and live animals) to obtain sugar, coffee, and wheat. The imports of grain have tended to increase in recent years. The rise is thought to indicate that a higher standard of living is demanded in the towns than the peasantry can or will supply. More white wheaten bread is baked than heretofore. But generally the standard of living is low and the national diet consists of maize prepared in one form or another, vegetables, fruits in their seasons, olive-oil in the olive-growing areas, cheese made from sheep's milk, and sometimes a little meat. Albanians are not as a rule fish-eaters, and fishing is mainly for export. The Christian population adds pork to its diet, and drinks wine and *raki* (grape spirit).

Table I shows how far behind its Balkan neighbours Albania stands in grain production. Yet a similar table would show Great Britain in an equally unfavourable position compared with France. To break up more pasture with the plough might injure stock-farming, and that argument has been advanced by the *beys* of the centre and south.

TABLE I. *A Comparison of the 1936/7 Grain Harvests of the Balkan Countries per Head of the Population. Albanian output taken as unity*

				Wheat	Maize	Barley	Rye	Oats
Bulgaria	.	.	.	8.8	1.3	11.6	11.5	2.6
Greece	.	.	.	3.4	0.3	6.5	2.8	2.0
Yugoslavia	.	.	.	7.0	3.3	7.1	5.0	2.8

Flour-mills are found in Sarandë, Valona, Korçë, Elbasan, Kavajë, Durazzo, Tirana, and Scutari. These are sufficient for the requirements of the people. Old-fashioned water-mills (grindstone) are common throughout Albania.

Since the Italian occupation of Albania the declared aim of the Government has been to increase agricultural production with the object of making the country self-supporting—at least in foodstuffs. Seed has been distributed to farmers, and schemes have been prepared

for the reclamation of 450,000 acres of marshland. These projects appear to have included the reclamation of the plain of Zadrima through which the Drin flows to the sea, the marshes of Kakarriq and Butrinto, the Vijosë valley, an area round Lake Maliq (near Korçë), the deltas of the Seman and Shkumbî rivers, and the lagoon of Tërbuf near Lushnje. What progress was made with these schemes is not known. Figures quoted by Italian authorities probably include the territories added in 1941, and are also, probably, optimistic. But 1942 was a year of drought, and food had to be imported. In 1944 essential foodstuffs, with the exception of maize, were rationed. The sale of agricultural produce was prohibited, and the transport of foodstuffs from one province to another was forbidden. The 'black market' was said to flourish.

Food Crops

Maize. Obviously the principal crop and the staple food of the peasantry is maize, which seems to suffer less from insect pests and disease than other grains in Albania and is grown in all districts. Maize stalks are used as fodder for cattle, which also find a meagre grazing in the stubble.

Wheat. Wheat is grown in the drier climate of Korçë, Berat, and Gjinokastër. These three areas provide more than half the total crop.

Barley, Rye, and Oats are cultivated, but only in comparatively small quantities. They tolerate lower temperatures than either maize or wheat. Much barley is grown at Kolonjë.

Rice is grown in small quantities about Tirana, Elbasan, Berat, Valona, and Delvinë, and at Parga beyond the Greek frontier.

Sugar-beet has been introduced recently around Korçë, Myzeqe, and Kavajë. There is a sugar-beet factory at Korçë.

Sugar-cane is cultivated in small quantities at Kavajë, Lushnje, and Fier. Neither beet nor cane is produced in sufficient quantities to provide Albania with enough sugar for her needs.

Beans, Lentils, and Chickpeas. Beans are grown between rows of maize. Lentils and chickpeas are cultivated for home consumption, and vetches for fodder.

Potatoes, Onions, Garlic, and Tomatoes are all cultivated for domestic use; the surplus finds its way to the local markets.

Fruit. Oranges, lemons, figs, grapes, apples and wild pears, mulberries and cherries are grown in sheltered places, but only what is surplus to home requirements finds its way to local markets. Himarë, Delvinë, Valona, and Elbasan are the fruit-growing districts.

Nuts. Almonds, hazel nuts, and pistachio are grown for domestic use and local markets. Wild walnut trees yield an important crop, some of which is exported, and a few trees are grown in towns and villages.

Olives. The olive-tree is extensively cultivated along the coast and is found as much as 50 miles inland. The principal groves are between the Sëman and Sarandë, but others, of less importance, are to be found at Scutari, Lesh, Tirana, Elbasan, Përmet, and Gjinokastër. Cultivation is primitive, however, and garnering so careless that good yields are common only every second year. There are no modern olive-oil refineries, though some is refined in Elbasan and Valona. A large quantity goes to Italy for refining.

Vines were ill cultivated till quite recently, and of poor quality except at Delvinë. In the Moslem districts they are grown for fresh grapes and raisins; but among the Christians there are choice local vintages, at Valona, Himarë, Mallakastër, Elbasan, Krujë, Lesh, Krionero, Fier, and Shijak, and, in Mirditë, at Orosh, Spaç, Gojan, Mushtë, and Mesul, and a good deal of raw spirit (*raki*) is produced.

Other Crops

Flax, Hemp, and Cotton. Formerly a good deal of flax and hemp was grown, for Albanians were, and still often are, clad in home-spuns, but this crop is less important than it used to be, owing to the importation of cheap foreign cloth. Research has been made into the possibility of growing cotton, and the Shkumbî valley seems suitable for the purpose. At present only a small acreage on the coastal plain is under cotton.

Tobacco. Many peasants grow tobacco for their own use, chiefly about Elbasan, Durazzo, and especially Scutari. Of recent years tobacco has been grown for sale. There are now cigarette factories at Korçë, Elbasan, Tirana, Durazzo, and Scutari.

Crop Production

Table II gives a general picture of crop-production, but must be treated with reserve. No adequate survey supports measurements of area, and home consumption can only be estimated.

Table III splits total production into the percentages which the various prefectures supply. This table is based, however, on a single and incomplete estimate. Moreover, in itself it is no index to provincial self-sufficiency, since it does not include population, for which see Table I, Chapter VII. The prefectures of Berat and Korçë have

TABLE II

		Area under cultivation					Amount <i>Quintals and tons</i>	Production				
		<i>Hectares and acres</i>	1925	1930	1935			1925	1930	1935		
			to	to	to			to	to	to		to
			1929	1934	1939			1940/1	1929	1934		1939
Maize .	H	63,000	75,000	91,425	104,000	Q	714,000	960,000	1,228,000	1,234,000		
	A	155,680	185,330	225,920	257,000	T	70,275	94,488	120,866	121,455		
Wheat .	H	30,000	36,000	41,200	48,000	Q	251,000	433,000	418,000	502,000		
	A	74,130	88,960	101,800	118,610	T	24,704	42,618	41,141	49,410		
Barley .	H	5,000	6,000	..	6,000	Q	43,000	66,000	50,000	52,000		
	A	12,350	14,830	..	14,830	T	4,230	6,496	4,920	5,118		
Rye .	H	2,000	3,000	..	4,000	Q	21,000	32,000	30,000	32,000		
	A	4,940	7,410	..	9,890	T	2,066	3,150	2,953	3,150		
Oats .	H	12,000	10,000	..	15,000	Q	94,000	110,000	107,000	130,000		
	A	29,650	24,710	..	37,070	T	9,250	10,800	9,850	12,795		
Rice .	H	No figures available				Q	..	..	5,000	..		
	A					T	..	..	490	..		
Olives .	H	..	..	18,000 ¹	..	Q	..	..	62,500 ²	..		
	A	..	..	44,480 ¹	..	T	..	..	6,153	..		
Vines .	H	..	..	3,700 ¹	..	Q	..	..	89,412 ¹	..		
	A	..	..	9,145 ¹	..	T	..	..	8,800 ¹	..		
Potatoes	H	..	..	..	..	Q	..	..	19,750	..		
	A	..	..	..	..	T	..	..	1,944	..		
Tobacco	H	800	1,200	2,000	..	Q	..	..	16,000	..		
	A	1,980	2,965	4,940	..	T	..	..	1,575	..		

¹ 1939 only. Of these totals 20,000 acres of olives and 3,500 acres of vineyards were of superior quality.

^a A mere approximation on the conservative side, and includes home consumption.

TABLE III. *Provincial Percentages*

[illegible]

surpluses for other districts; Durazzo has some small margin; Tirana is dependent on Durazzo and Berat; in other provinces the low standard of consumption has to be met by chestnuts, fish, and game.

Stock Farming

For such ready money as he needs the Albanian looks more to the produce of his live stock than to that of his fields. Corn is grown to supply the family with food; herds and flocks, however, are bred not only to supply draught animals and a little meat, but for wool, mohair, and hides. Stock-raising is a traditional occupation. Cattle are the only investment known to many and give a fair return, and a large percentage of the total value of Albanian exports derives from animal produce or live animals. It has already been noted that about 31 per cent. of the area of the country is pasture, either alpine or marshland. About a third of the cattle, and rather more of the sheep and goats, belong to nomad herdsmen, Albanian or Vlach (Aromuni), or are leased to them by their owners.

Cattle. Cattle are to be found mainly in the lowlands, although the better types are most common in northern Albania where there is abundance of alpine pasturage. As a whole, however, cattle are small and poor, and methods of stock-breeding are as primitive as those of cultivation. It is probable that more than half the cattle are draught oxen, as milking cows are of less value to local economy. The yield of cow's milk is low; about 40–80 gallons per head over a season of six months appears to be the average. Most of the milk used for farm consumption is that of goats, though some cow's milk is drunk, and some is sent to the towns. Curds and cheese are much eaten, but the cheese is more often made from sheep's than cow's milk. Butter-making is carried out in a primitive way except at Scutari, Tirana, Valona, Korçë, and Gjinokastër, where modern dairy machinery has been installed. Albania is normally self-sufficient in cheese. Very little animal fat is imported.

The poor condition of the cattle is largely due to the starvation rations with which they have to be content. Roots are not used to supplement winter feeding. Grazing herds have to find what food they can in the stubble of maize fields. A little hay is made and fed to them, they get maize stalks after the harvest, and they are also given dried foliage which has been stripped from the forest trees, but of ensilage there is none. Vetches are planted in some places to eke out the fodder. In spite of all these expedients, the winter fare of the herds does little more than keep skin and bone together. In the calving season in the

spring there is, naturally, a shortage of milk, for the calves consume it all. The calves, when weaned, are sold.

Buffaloes. The buffaloes, and they are common, are the black, hairy, and marsh-loving descendants of those introduced centuries ago from Egypt. They are mostly in the coastal plain.

Sheep of hardy mountain breed are common. They are bred for their wool and milk rather than for food. If milk prices are good, or there is a demand for cheese, the season's lambs are killed while still young, and more meat appears on the peasant's table; otherwise lambs are reared for sale. The value of the wool exported in 1938 exceeded that of other commodities, and the value of cheese was also high.

Goats are also herded and, like the sheep, are bred for mohair and milk rather than for food. They are most common in the mountains.

Horses, Mules, and Donkeys. Albanian horses were famous and sought after in the Middle Ages, but have sadly degenerated. Like mules and donkeys and cattle, they have often to find food where they can, although some oats are grown for them.

Pigs. Although 69 per cent. of the inhabitants of Albania are Moslems, nevertheless swine, the property of their Christian neighbours, range in the woods for roots and wild fruits. Pigs almost keep themselves, and when slaughtered are a welcome addition to a diet in which meat and fats are none too common. There were 15,000 swine in 1938—which shows that about one Christian family in six owned pigs. Pigs are sold to be fattened on the swill which is available in towns. A fat pig weighs 400–650 lb.

Fowls, of a lean, scrawny, and muscular variety, are to be found everywhere. The yield of eggs is naturally low, only about 50–70 per annum, but eggs are exported.

Table IV gives an estimate of the numbers of livestock in 1939, and of the exportable surplus of dairy produce in that year. Here again, however, reliability is doubtful, especially in remote districts.

TABLE IV. *Livestock, and Exportable Dairy Produce, in 1938*

<i>Livestock</i>		<i>Numbers</i>	<i>Dairy, and other produce, in tons</i>	
Cattle	.	391,000	Milk	12,800
Buffaloes	.	21,000	Butter	1,180
Sheep	.	1,574,000	Cheese	2,950
Goats	.	932,000	Eggs	14,000
Horses	.	54,000	Wool and hides:	
Mules and donkeys	.	55,000	Wool	1,270
Pigs	.	15,000	Hides and skins	930

II. FISHERIES

FISH are an important item in coast towns and villages, around the larger lakes, and probably in most accessible districts, although more for export than for home consumption, for Albanians are not fish-eaters. There are fish-traps on the larger rivers, and the heavy fishing-boats of Lake Ochrida are occasionally sent overland to Lake Prespa. Yet there are no reliable statistics to show how many are so employed.

In the markets, and especially at seaports, fish are sold more generally under their Italian than their Albanian names. The former are, therefore, given below.

The commoner species of fish are grey mullet (*cephalo*), bass (*spigole*), dory (*orati*), and eels (*anguilli*). Trout (*troto*), carp, and eel are caught in lakes Ochrida and Prespa, and sturgeon are common in the larger rivers. In Lake Scutari and Liqen i Nartës, north of Valona, a sardine (*scoranza*) is netted, preserved, and exported. Mullet-roe (*botarga*) is preserved at Valona. Carp scales are used in making artificial pearls.

Before the war there was a considerable export of fresh, salted, or smoked fish. Thus:

<i>Year</i>						<i>Export in tons</i>
1934	.	.	.	.	.	523·0
1935	.	.	.	.	.	375·9
1936	.	.	.	.	.	182·9
1937	.	.	.	.	.	281·1
1938	.	.	.	.	.	248·9

Export is said to have risen greatly during the war.

III. FORESTRY

THE potential value of Albanian forests is considerable, for more than a third of the country is woodland, and much of it contains excellent timber, including all the best European hardwoods as well as conifers. Preservation and replanting have not yet been considered, however, whilst there has been no systematic economic exploitation. The rivers are not suitable for floating timber, and the best woodland areas have had neither roads nor railways.

In 1938 the woodland area was estimated to consist of:

Large trees	988,500 acres
Mature forest and second growth	346,500 "
Second growth	603,500 "
Scrub	511,500 "
TOTAL	2,450,000 acres

Forest areas are mainly in northern Albania. The commonest trees are oak (47%), beech (18%), conifers (18%), and, in lesser quantities, chestnut, box, elm, maple, ash, alder, lime, and plane. Some of the old trees are of great size and over 150–200 ft. high. Walnut, formerly common, was cut so recklessly after 1918 that in many areas it has almost disappeared. The upper limit of altitude for oak is 2,500 feet, and for beech, pine, and fir 3,000 feet. Above this there is only scrub and alpine pasture. Many forest areas have been devastated by reckless cutting for fuel or charcoal burning. Oaks are pollarded and the foliage stored for winter fuel. About 390,000 cubic feet of timber have been exported annually (1936–1938), mainly to Italy.

The evergreen scrub (*maquis*) produces sumach, melograno, *valonia* oak, and other commodities.

IV. MINERALS AND MINING

ALTHOUGH the variety of geological formations present in Albania is considerable, the mineral deposits known to exist are not especially extensive. Up to 1939 only the occurrences of petroleum and asphalt were of more than local importance. Some exploitation of deposits of chromite, cupriferos pyrites, and iron ore has since taken place, but in no case has it yielded a large output. In part, however, the backwardness of mining development in the country must be attributed to undeveloped road and rail systems; and although some recent reports of great mineral riches are based upon insufficient evidence and must therefore be discounted, there is no doubt that increased prospecting and improved communications could lead to a much larger production of metallic ores than has hitherto been possible.

Petroleum and Asphalt. The presence in Albania of seepages of asphalt and of burning escapes of natural gas ('everlasting fires'), both of which are commonly associated with petroleum deposits, was well known as early as the first century A.D. Dioscorides (*Materia Medica*, i. 100) describes lumps of bitumen thrown up by a river, probably the Vijosë, and found concreted into pitchy masses on its banks; while Strabo (VII. v, §8), writing about A.D. 17, states: 'On the

territory of the people of Apollonia [*mod.* Pojan] in Illyria there is what is called a *nymphaeum*. It is a rock which emits fire. Below it are springs flowing with hot water and asphalt. . . . The asphalt is dug out of a neighbouring hill; the parts excavated are replaced by fresh earth, which after a time is converted into asphalt.' This occurrence is almost certainly the large seepage at Selenicë near Valona, modern exploitation of which began about the middle of the nineteenth century. The asphalt normally contains 70-80 per cent. of hydrocarbons soluble in carbon disulphide, and it is utilized principally for paving roads. Recent working has been under the direction of the *Società Italiana delle Miniere di Selenizza* (*S.I.M.S.A.*). Statistics are incomplete, but output averaged about 7,000 tons a year before 1914, falling to 2,500 tons in 1929. The following more recent export figures may also include some by-product asphalt from the petroleum industry.

Exports of Asphalt (long tons)

1934	1935	1936	1937	1938
6,388	6,677	6,984	9,981	11,817

During the 1914-1918 war officers of the Italian Marines reported a seepage of heavy oil associated with spring waters on a plain, near the village of Drashovicë, 5 miles east of Valona. In 1918 a little oil was raised from the first well near Drashovicë. Boring ceased, however, on the evacuation of the Italian forces of occupation, and notwithstanding Italian interest in the project, it was to the Anglo-Persian Oil Company that the first concession was granted, in February 1925, by the Albanian Government. A month later two concessions were leased to Italian interests, and within a short time the following areas of lower Albania had been taken up:

	<i>Acres</i>
Anglo-Persian Oil Company (British)	85,000
Ferrovie dello Stato d'Italia (Italian)	116,000
Società Italiana della Miniere di Selenizza (Italian)	5,310
Standard Oil Company (American)	127,000
Henry H. Rushton (British)	21,120
Syndicat Franco-Albanais (French)	74,000

The concessions were of 60 years' duration, each of the holders undertaking to pay the Albanian Government an annual rent of 150 gold francs per 2.75 acres, in addition to a 13.5 per cent. tax on gross production. The Anglo-Persian Oil Company and the French and Italian firms each drilled a number of wells, some of which were productive; but the British and American firms allowed their concessions

to lapse. About 1936 the French company (now the *Société Industrielle et Commerciale des Pétroles*) renewed its concession, deposited a guarantee of Fr.35,000 in gold, and conducted test-drilling over 470,650 acres, of which 64,130 acres were to be selected for exploitation. In wells sunk near Korçë traces of oil were encountered, with much gas; while another well in the lower Devoll valley gave a maximum production of 7 barrels a day from horizons between 2,465 feet and 2,608 feet.

Since their domestic resources of petroleum are quite inadequate even for peace-time consumption, and since Albania is favourably situated for development of them, the Italians have conducted by far the most extensive investigations in this country. Shortly after the Italian State Railways took up their concession in 1925, a state-controlled subsidiary, the *Azienda Italiana Petroli Albania* (A.I.P.A.), was formed to undertake exploration and development. Subsidized by 30 million lire of government funds in 1925, by a further 50 million lire in 1927, and by additional unknown sums since that date, the company in 1927 extended its right to 405,000 acres and commenced an extensive boring campaign. Ten years later considerably over a hundred wells had been sunk, aggregating more than 90,000 feet of drilling, and the costs of investigation had exceeded 170 million lire. Two fields have been discovered, one in the Kuçovë district 15 miles north-north-west of Berat, and another around Patos, east-north-east of Valona. The former, covering about 17,500 acres, is by far the more important and is spoken of as the centre of the industry; here there are upwards of 400 wells which draw oil principally from Upper Miocene sands at depths of 250 to 2,500 feet, the productive series being 1,000 feet thick with 6 to 12 lenticular oil-sand horizons. Other minor Italian developments have been at Penkovë, Selenicë, Trevllazën, Selevac, and Buzmadh, all inland from Valona; also near Lesh, and in the Mat and Elbasan districts.

Immediately commercial production was realized, A.I.P.A. laid a 44-mile pipe-line alongside a new Italian-built road from the Kuçovë field to Uj të ftohtë (Krionero) in Valona bay. The capacity of this 8-inch pipe-line was reported in 1937 to be about 5,000 barrels of crude per day, and wharves have been constructed to handle some 2 million barrels per annum. The first tanker shipment, amounting to 29,064 barrels, was exported from Valona to the refineries at Trieste in December 1935. Later shipments have been made principally to Leghorn and Bari.

The Albanian petroleum reserves have been unofficially estimated

at about 70 million barrels. All the oil is of a heavy type, of specific gravity from 0.930 to 0.990 or more, containing 3-4 per cent. sulphur and about 40 per cent. asphaltic residue. The available production figures are as follows:

Production of Crude Petroleum

(Thousands of barrels of 35 British gallons)

1926	1927	1928	1929	1930-3	1934	1935	1936	1937	1938	1939	1940	1941
7	10	18	20	.. ¹	10	41	273	619	752	934	1,659	1,380

¹ Data not available.

Lignite. Albania has no resources of bituminous coal, but small seams of lignite occurring at the same stratigraphical level as the oil-sands have been worked to a small extent for domestic fuel and for brick-making, lime-burning, and other local industries. The total reserves are not large. Of the many occurrences only the following are workable:

- (1) Exposures in the Krrabë highlands east and south-east of Tirana, where there are two seams of anthracitized lignite aggregating about 5 feet thick, with a thin parting of shale. Outcrops were worked during the Austrian occupation of 1915-1918. The calorific value is relatively high and the coals can be readily mined: but only 3,130 tons were produced in 1936.
- (2) Deposits in the Memaliaj-Tepelenë district, totalling 13 feet of minable coal, with over 4 feet in the largest seam. These are cannel coals of high bitumen content. Mining was carried on during the Italian occupation of 1916-1920, but is rather difficult because of tectonic disturbances.
- (3) Two seams, respectively 4 feet and 2 feet, to the east of Korçë, minable along a 2½-mile outcrop. The ash and sulphur content is high, but the coal is of fair calorific value. A little primitive mining is carried on.
- (4) Coals similar to those of Korçë occurring near Pogradec, where there are several old workings, mainly at Kakaç. The best seam is a black anthracite, 2½ feet thick, but of low calorific value.

No complete production statistics of these lignites are recorded. During 1929 the output from legal concessions was 4,117 metric tons, and the following figures have been quoted for recent years:

1936	.	.	.	.	.	3,130
1937	.	.	.	.	.	4,064
1939	.	.	.	.	.	7,000

Chromite. Chrome ore is widely distributed throughout the serpentine rocks, but only in a few places is it known to be concentrated

in workable form. These localities include Mëmlisht near Pogradec; Vlahnë and Luzhë in the Krumë district near Kukës; Qafë e Kumbullës near the headwaters of the Fan i vogël; and Juban in the Scutari hinterland. The ore is said to average 48 per cent. of Cr_2O_3 , with silica not exceeding 9 per cent. During 1940 it was reported that the workable masses so far discovered amounted to 500,000 tons and that further prospecting was giving good results. The Mëmlisht deposits are being developed by the *Azienda Minerali Metallici Italiani* of Rome, the first shipment of 1,000 tons reaching Genoa in April 1940. Total exports of chromite from June 1938 to September 1939 are listed at 14,357 metric tons.

Pyrites. Deposits of iron pyrites, a mineral from which sulphuric acid is manufactured, are also not infrequent among the igneous formations, but only in the Mirditë district is the ore found in large amount. The main occurrence is at the base of the Munella range of mountains, where there are four large and several small ore-bodies forming lens-shaped impregnations in porphyry. Estimates of reserves give a minimum of 3 million and possible 15–20 million tons. Although the deposits could be readily mined, they are separated from the nearest road by 11 miles of mountainous country, and up to 1939 transport difficulties had restricted their development.

Copper Ores. Copper-bearing iron pyrites is found at several localities in the Dukagjin district of northern Albania and in the Vithkuq region to the south-west of Korçë. Most of these deposits have been prospected, but up to 1939 little production had resulted and subsequent information is not available. In the north the principal occurrences are at Narel and at Qerret i poshtëm, both in the Pukë district; at Bisakë and Serriqe, in the Fan i vogël valley; and near Mazrek, in the Cukali district. In the region to the south-west of Korçë there are important ore-bodies at Rehovë and Kamenicë. At the former a pyrite-chalcopyrite ore concentrated throughout a kilometre-long dislocation-zone in porphyry yields from 14 to 18 per cent. copper, locally with 1 per cent. nickel. Ore from old dumps at the Kamenicë mass, which was prospected by the French during the last war, yields 2 per cent. copper with 3 gm. of gold per ton. Abandoned mines at these localities may date from Roman times. In 1940 it was reported, probably somewhat optimistically, that from two new mines in the Rubico district (probably Rrubig in the Fan valley) an annual output equivalent to 6,000 metric tons of metallic copper could be expected.

Other Minerals. Several other economic minerals are known, but

hitherto few deposits have proved capable of exploitation on a significant scale. *Iron ore* is present in many places, but almost always in minor ore-bodies. Reserves of haematite in the district around Lake Ochrida, are, however, stated to be in the neighbourhood of 20 million tons. A sedimentary Jurassic ironstone with 84 per cent. oxide (Fe_2O_3) occurring to the west of Majë e Kulthit, 15 miles south-east of Valona, was prospected by the Italians about 1918. *Arsenic ore* (realgar and orpiment), apparently as yet unprospected, is found in the Pukë region. Minor occurrences of *lead*, *zinc*, and *quicksilver* are on record, and *bauxite* is found in pockets in the limestones both of the Mali Polisit plateau and in the south-western mountains, the available reserves being estimated at about 4 million tons. *Gypsum* has been worked to a small extent near Valona, and is widely developed in the Belsh district; in the Korab mountains it forms an immense horizon over 3,000 feet thick, unfortunately far too inaccessible for development. *Asbestos* associated with *talc*, veining the serpentine at Dishnicë to the north of Korçë, was being prospected by the Italians in 1939. Small deposits of *magnesite* are known in the Opar district west of Korçë and there are, at numerous localities, intrusions of dunite or *olivine rock* probably suitable for the refractory industry. *Cement* is produced on a small scale from marls in the neighbourhood of Scutari and Valona; and various strata throughout the country have been quarried for *lime*, *brick-clays*, *road macadams*, and *building stones*, all for local use. Coastal salinas at Valona produce sufficient salt to satisfy local needs.

Mineral Springs

Springs of mineralized water are found in many parts of the country. Cold sulphurous springs are the most common, especially where bituminous limestones are overthrust on the flysch strata, and are known locally as *uj qelbur* (stinking water) because of the smell of the dissolved sulphuretted hydrogen. The following are worthy of mention: Mamuras (15 miles south of Lesh), Krujë (west of the town), Bananj (6 miles north-west of Berat), and Bellovodë (7 miles south-west of Korçë). Warm sulphurous springs with a temperature of 75° to 135° F. and a flow of from 5 to 500 gallons per second are found at Bujars near Elbasan, Banja e Kuqeshit, and close to Peshkopi; at these three places rather primitive bathing huts have been installed. Salt or bitter springs are much less frequent, but examples occur near Butrinto, at Smokthinë 17 miles south-east of Valona, and at a few other places.

CHAPTER XI

TRADE, INDUSTRY, AND FINANCE

THE period considered in this chapter is that of Albanian Independence and ends with the outbreak of war. It is a period of currency changes and of sharp fluctuations in rates of exchange. For these reasons it is none too easy to follow the extent of, and changes in, a national economy described in Albanian gold francs. Equivalents in sterling are given freely, therefore, as a yardstick by which to gauge the order of things, but they must not be taken too literally, since local prices and wages may lag far behind rates of exchange. Reference to pp. 261-2 will show how sterling equivalents have been assessed.

A. TRADE

THAT Albania does little external trade so far is a natural consequence of her history. The past has offered no peaceful avenues by which trade could have moved, no friendly neighbours with whom to exchange, and no railways or roads to make easy the collection and distribution of goods. Thus in 1936 the sum total of exports and imports divided by the population—in other words the volume of trade per head of the population—was $2\frac{1}{4}$ times as great in Yugoslavia, $1\frac{3}{4}$ times in Bulgaria, $7\frac{1}{2}$ times in Greece, nearly 18 times in Malta, and over 31 in Great Britain. For 15 years before 1938 only once has the value of exports exceeded £1,000,000 and sometimes it hardly reached a third of that amount. In the same period the value of imports has invariably exceeded that of exports.

A further consequence of recent history is that Albania traded mainly with Italy, and was obliged to supply all that she could of such commodities as Italian economy lacked. Thus her oil was sent mainly to Italy, there to be refined, whilst she herself had to import petroleum from Romania. Indeed about 80 per cent. of the exports went to Italy and 25 per cent. of the imports came from there.

In August 1937 a restriction was put upon imports from all countries, except Italy, Greece, and the United States, whose imports from Albania were less than 70 per cent. of their exports to that country. The measure was ostensibly aimed at redressing the adverse trade balance, but had the effect of strengthening Italian control of

Albanian trade. Whilst Italy took the bulk of trade, Yugoslavia, Rumania, Germany, Czechoslovakia, Great Britain, Greece, the U.S.A., and Japan also took part in it.

Exports included crude oil, bitumen, livestock, hides and skins, eggs, cheese, wool, fish, olives, dried vegetables, tobacco, and timber.

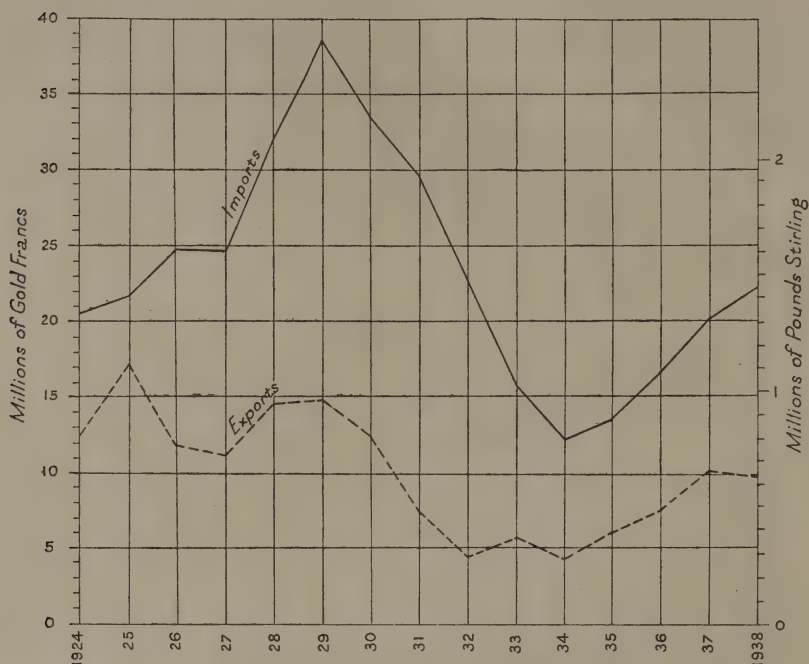


FIG. 44. *Imports and Exports*

Imports included maize, wheat, rice, coffee, sugar, cotton and woollen yarns and textiles, cement, iron and wooden building materials and machinery.

The total values of imports and exports are given on Fig. 44 and Table I. They are examined in detail for the three years 1935-6-7 in Tables II and III, and Table IV gives the direction of trade during that same period.

TABLE I. *Value of Imports and Exports*

		<i>Imports</i>		<i>Exports</i>
1924	G. francs	20,489,588 £1,348,000	G. francs	12,379,410 £812,985
1925	G. francs	21,799,411 £1,434,200	G. francs	17,122,761 £1,126,500
1926	G. francs	24,864,731 £1,635,800	G. francs	11,963,982 £786,840
1927	G. francs	24,681,888 £1,623,700	G. francs	11,106,902 £730,660
1928	G. francs	32,311,583 £2,125,700	G. francs	14,694,203 £966,710
1929	G. francs	38,643,900 £2,541,700	G. francs	14,682,608 £965,830
1930	G. francs	33,288,900 £2,188,000	G. francs	12,352,063 £812,630
1931	G. francs	29,513,300 £1,941,600	G. francs	7,509,000 £494,010
1932	G. francs	22,814,500 £1,500,900	G. francs	4,500,360 £296,070
1933	G. francs	15,938,221 £1,048,550	G. francs	5,746,476 £378,060
1934	G. francs	12,332,708 £811,380	G. francs	4,284,331 £281,840
1935	G. francs	13,730,138 £901,370	G. francs	6,037,478 £397,200
1936	G. francs	16,777,691 £1,102,500	G. francs	7,434,621 £489,120
1937	G. francs	20,315,687 £1,336,500	G. francs	10,175,065 £669,410
1938	G. francs	22,397,890 £1,473,500	G. francs	9,749,959 £641,440

TABLE II. *Imports*

Product	1935		1936		1937	
	Quantity ¹	Value (Thousands of Gold Frs.)	Quantity ¹	Value (Thousands of Gold Frs.)	Quantity ¹	Value (Thousands of Gold Frs.)
Meat, edible animal fats, fish, &c.	.. ²	44	.. ²	56	85	59
Wheat	138	17	3,020	528	4,371	711
Maize	..	..	19,423	1,775	15,246	1,348
Rice	2,806	376	2,505	354	2,682	400
Other cereals, flour, &c.	.. ²	64	.. ²	85	456	114
Fruits and vegetables	.. ²	50	.. ²	53	265	84
Coffee	544	340	528	323	591	390
Sugar	3,864	410	3,854	420	4,270	496
Spices and miscellaneous colonial produce	.. ²	119	.. ²	255	355	175
Beer	107	38	217	50	214	65
Other beverages	.. ²	77	.. ²	83	185	113
Constructional timber	11,237 ³	382	10,669 ³	395	11,124 ³	431
Cement	6,842	147	10,893	225	2,776	54
Metals	.. ²	.. ²	.. ²	.. ²	1,068	268
Motor spirit	3,136	642	3,390	857	3,171	962
Kerosene	2,198	396	2,264	503	2,243	652
'Naphte'	2,694	264	2,483	227	402	59
Gas oil	..	..	..	..	1,816	278
Miscellaneous petroleum products	.. ²	.. ²	.. ²	.. ²	549	165
Cotton yarns	442	655	383	679	427	814
Woollen yarns	23	111	23	112	30	186
Miscellaneous yarns	.. ²	.. ²	.. ²	.. ²	80	119
Cotton textiles	1,448	2,712	1,326	2,471	1,289	756
Woollen textiles	99	714	107	702	105	98
Silk textiles	2	42	2	36	7	54
Miscellaneous textiles	.. ²	.. ²	.. ²	.. ²	375	994
Wooden goods	.. ²	.. ²	.. ²	.. ²	189	122
Paper, printed matter, &c.	.. ²	485	.. ²	408	1,253	759
Rubber and rubber manufactures	.. ²	331	.. ²	391	251	410
Explosives, matches, &c.	.. ²	.. ²	.. ²	.. ²	90	84
Ceramics, glassware, &c.	.. ²	.. ²	.. ²	.. ²	1,368	371
Metal manufactures	.. ²	1,227 ⁴	.. ²	1,232 ⁴	2,519	1,195
Machinery (non-agricultural)	449	358	326	421	365	498
Machinery (agricultural)	78	63	135	89	107	81
Motor vehicles	91	265	89	211	116	281
Chemicals	.. ²	640	.. ²	704	1,099	888
TOTAL IMPORTS	..	13,730 ⁵	..	16,778 ⁵	..	20,316 ⁵

¹ Metric tons unless otherwise stated.² Not known.³ Cubic metres.⁴ Metals are included in the figure given for metal manufactures.⁵ Not the total of the items listed.

TABLE III. *Exports*

<i>Product</i>	1935		1936		1937	
	<i>Quantity</i> ¹	<i>Value</i> (Thousands of Gold Frs.)	<i>Quantity</i> ¹	<i>Value</i> (Thousands of Gold Frs.)	<i>Quantity</i> ¹	<i>Value</i> (Thousands of Gold Frs.)
Livestock	25,700 ³	394	26,189 ³	542	55,252 ³	892
Cheese	817	927	802	1,121	796	950
Eggs	1,160	657	1,193	792	1,256	706
Fish	381	339	186	139	306	152
Olives	2,630	582	1,357	318	2,263	318
Olive-oil	1	1	1	1	89	92
Olive husks	..	..	1,786	55	1,487	43
Tobacco and cigarettes	141	129	201	200	195	190
Hides	692	762	771	1,001	947	1,484
Timber (for fuel)	2,116	114	6,135	54	16,211	126
Timber (other than fuel)	841 ³	94	712 ³	87	3,091 ³	556
Wool	468	445	680	886	1,298	1,833
Charcoal	2,329	74	3,211	103	3,851	130
Natural asphalt	6,784	347	7,096	369	10,141	510
Beans	1,211	199	1,700	306	1,606	329
Crude mineral oil	4,195	?	45,943	925	59,271	1,185
Wheat	836	79	524	96	425	43
Maize	11,942	650	151	11	27	5
TOTAL EXPORTS	..	6,037 ⁴	..	7,435 ⁴	..	10,175

¹ Metric tons except where otherwise stated.³ Cubic metres.² Head.⁴ Not the total of the items listed.TABLE IV. *Direction of Trade (Thousands of Gold Frs.)*

<i>Country of origin or destination</i>	1935		1936		1937	
	<i>Imports</i>	<i>Exports</i>	<i>Imports</i>	<i>Exports</i>	<i>Imports</i>	<i>Exports</i>
Italy	3,906	3,687	4,177	4,954	4,881	7,998
Yugoslavia	617	78	1,258	144	2,272	72
Romania	564	..	621	..	2,173	..
Japan	1,584	..	1,504	..	1,488	..
Czechoslovakia	949	52	1,138	106	1,365	96
Switzerland	95	1	415	9	1,200	20
Great Britain	1,345	22	1,408	58	1,000	69
Germany	1,114	1	1,025	..	956	8
U.S.A.	550	856	805	1,102	933	861
Austria	522	..	493	223	674	3
Greece	582	1,241	728	794	639	928
Belgium	457	..	629	..	579	..
France	385	79	527	31	427	23
Hungary	318	..	393	..	405	..
Egypt	181	10	188	14	333	10
Brazil	317	..	313	..	304	..
India	101	..	45	..	245	..
Bulgaria	4	..	829	..	137	..
Holland	72	..	96	..	136	..
Sweden	19	..	24	..	56	..
Turkey	10	..	20	..	10	..
Other countries	38	10	142	..	103	87
TOTALS	13,730	6,037	16,778	7,435	20,316	10,175

B. INDUSTRY

ALBANIA has no large industrial establishments. There are primitive cottage industries supplementary to agriculture or stock-raising, and catering mainly for the needs of the household. Native woven textiles, for example, are abundant, and of excellent quality, but methods of spinning and weaving are very primitive. Again watermills with artificial channels and wooden wheels are very common in a country of such natural, if undeveloped, water power. Coach building, for both draught and motoring, is carried out in the larger towns, and some furniture is made. There is a cement factory, with a rapidly increasing output, in Scutari. Cigarettes are made from locally grown tobacco at Scutari and Durazzo, and there is a brewery at Korçë. These and other industrial beginnings are listed below.

Industries connected with Agriculture

Milling. In a country of many streams it would be surprising if their potential power was not turned to account. Albania is, in fact, well provided with small mills, primitive and rough though they be. Wooden wheels of the breast or undershot type have been built in carefully excavated channels and turn mill-stones hewn out of local rock. The output of these mills is small and often gritty, but the mills supply the needs, and ease the drudgery, of many homesteads. There are large modern and more efficient mills in the towns of Scutari, Durazzo, Tirana, Elbasan, Berat, Korçë, Valona, Sarandë, and Kavajë. Internal-combustion engines supply the power for these mills.

Olive-oil. There are primitive oil-presses of local design and construction in the olive-growing districts. There are also up-to-date oil refineries at Elbasan and Valona. Oil residues were exported to Italy and Greece for further extraction until recently; 2,000 tons were exported in 1938.

Soap. Small soap factories, in which olive-oil is used, have been built at Scutari, Durazzo, Elbasan, and Berat.

Tobacco. Cigarettes of the locally grown and cured tobacco are made at factories at Scutari, Durazzo, Elbasan, Berat, and Valona.

Distilleries. Grape spirit (*raki*) is distilled at Scutari, Elbasan, and Krionero. A famous raki is also produced at the teqe of Prishtë in the upper Osum valley.

Other Industries

Brewery. A brewery was built at Korçë by Italians. The beer is, or was, brewed from imported materials.

Brickworks. There are brickworks at Elbasan, Korçë, and Tirana.

Cement. A modern cement factory has been built at Scutari and another was begun at Elbasan in 1940. The output, 14,000 tons of cement in 1937, was sufficient for the country's needs.

Fish-preserving. There is a fish-preserving factory at Scutari. The Albanian equivalent of the sardine, known as the 'scoranze', is caught in Scutari lake and the Boyana channel.

Furniture. Furniture is made on a small scale by individual cabinet-makers working in the larger towns.

Trucks, Carts, &c. Bodies for buses and trucks are made at Scutari; carts, wagons, and horse-drawn vehicles generally are made at Scutari, Durazzo, Tirana, and Berat.

The analysis of industries given below shows that they are concentrated in a few towns and these of no great population. In fact it may be taken for granted that most of Albanian industries, other than the peasant industries, are comparable to the small businesses so common in minor European towns where the mineral-water manufacturer or confectioner runs a small ice plant and the local builder has a brickyard as well as a carpenter's shop and is prepared to undertake all classes of work from making a body for a motor truck to building a house.

<i>Town</i>	<i>Industries</i>
Scutari	Flour-mill; dairy; soap factory; cigarette factory; distillery; ice factory; fish-preserving factory; cement works; wagon-building works.
Durazzo	Flour-mill; soap factory; cigarette factory; wagon works.
Tirana	Flour-mill; dairy; ice factory; brickworks; wagon works.
Elbasan	Flour-mill; oil refinery; soap factory; cigarette factory; distillery; brickworks.
Berat	Soap factory; cigarette factory; wagon works.
Gjinokastër	Dairy.
Korçë	Flour-mills; brewery; ice factory; brickworks.
Valona	Flour-mill; dairy; oil refinery; garage.
Krionero	Distillery.
Sarandë	Flour-mill.
Kavajë	Flour-mill.

Wool Industry. The production in 1938-1939 was estimated to be about 1,000 tons of clean wool. But owing to internal disturbances in the country and the increased slaughter of sheep for food by the people, only about 900 tons of wool were produced in 1942-1943. The

Italians, on their occupation of the country, seized all available stocks, but some were destroyed by guerrilla bands.

Timber. Another growing industry in Albania which is sure of development is that of timber felling and working, since over a quarter of the country (actually 31%) is covered with forests. They produce hardwoods and conifers. The difficulty of exploitation is that of transport; the rivers, often flowing swiftly through deep rocky gorges, can give little help in solving the problem unless they are canalized. In spite of this lack of communications the export of hardwoods (chiefly walnut to Italy) has risen rapidly in recent years.

Power. Albania is potentially rich in hydro-electric power and several surveys have been made for utilizing it, but internal-combustion engines are generally used for industry, except at Korçë where water power is used.

Two Italian companies, *Stamles*, and the *Società Impresse Telefoniche Albanese* (S.I.T.A.), have electric light plants. They provide Durazzo and Tirana respectively with light. A third Italian company, the *Sesa*, is mentioned, as supplying other towns.

Small independent installations are reported at Kuçovë (oil-field: at least 1,500 kW. capacity); Tirana (550 kW.); Durazzo and Valona (300 kW.); Scutari and Korçë (250 kW.); Berat, Elbasan, Fier, Gjinokastër, Kavajë, Pogradec, and Sarandë (100 kW. or less). All the above are Diesel engine plants. At Vithkuq is a hydro-electric plant (250 kW. capacity) for supplying Korçë. Almost all these installations are of 125/150 volts D.C.

C. FINANCE

ALBANIA, a poor and undeveloped country, needed money from the moment of its liberation in 1913. Recognizing this the Powers provided a loan and instituted a council of control for both financial and administrative reasons. The highland chiefs, the landowning *beys*, and the officials of the old Ottoman régime were equally ignorant of modern European systems of government and of finance.

When Ahmed Zogu came into power, with Yugoslav help, in 1925, he failed to obtain a loan from Yugoslavia or from the League of Nations and was obliged to rely upon Italian help. The hold that Italy so obtained was used to exclude other foreign capital, and thus to tighten the bonds of control. In 1925-1926 a loan of 50,000,000 gold francs (£3,300,000), at 13 per cent. was raised by the *Società*

per lo Sviluppo Economico dell' Albania (S.V.E.A.), formed by the national bank but, like it, controlled by the *Credito Italiano*. There followed a rapid rise of the Italian lire on the foreign exchange, and the Albanian Government made a profit of 12,000,000 lire. Security for this loan included concessions for the state monopolies—salt, matches, cigarette paper, and playing-cards—and for forests and minerals, and an undertaking for forty years not to take action without the concurrence of Italian interests; an undertaking which obviously impeded native Albanian development.

In July 1931 Italy offered a loan of 100,000,000 gold francs (£6,600,000) free of interest, to be repaid when the budget reached a quite unlikely figure. A first instalment of 10,000,000 gold francs was paid in 1931. The second, in 1932, was withheld, because King Zog refused to renew the Pact of Tirana, and had defaulted on the loan to S.V.E.A.; and in 1933 Mussolini repudiated his offer. Later the payment of it was resumed, and fresh loans were made on easier terms. These were for specific purposes such as the construction of improvements to the large harbour at Durazzo, where Italian forces landed in 1939.

Currency

Before 1926 there was no national coinage, but foreign coins were in circulation and were evaluated to the gold franc of Switzerland. With the help of the Albanian national bank a national currency was then established.

The monetary unit is the Albanian gold franc, divided into five leks. By definition it was at parity with the Swiss franc of that time, which was valued at 0.29032 gramme (0.009334 oz. troy) of fine gold, and 25.2215 of these francs went to the £1 sterling. After 1930, however, changes began to occur. The £1 sterling went off gold and was, thereafter, the equivalent of 15.2 Swiss or Albanian gold francs. A little later the Swiss franc (but not the Albanian) lost value. In 1939 the Albanian franc was made permanently equal to 6.25 Italian lire and was bound to the fluctuations of the latter. If the old 'gold' value still obtained the Albanian franc would now (1944) stand at 12.75 to the £1, but, as the lire is 400 to the £1, and as it is doubtful whether any Albanian gold coinage is in circulation, and whether there is any gold cover for paper currency, it is safest to assume 64 Albanian francs to the £1. These latest developments are, however, of small interest, for it is certain that fresh exchange rates will have to be fixed.

For an understanding of the finances of Albania from 1927 to the outbreak of war the following table may be followed:

TABLE V

<i>Sterling</i>	<i>Albanian gold franc</i>	<i>Albanian lek</i>	<i>Italian lire</i>
<i>1</i>	15·2	76·0	95·0
0·0658 (1s. 3·79d.)	<i>1</i>	5	6·25
0·0132 (3·15d.)	0·2	<i>1</i>	1·25
0·0105 (2·53d.)	0·16	0·8	<i>1</i>

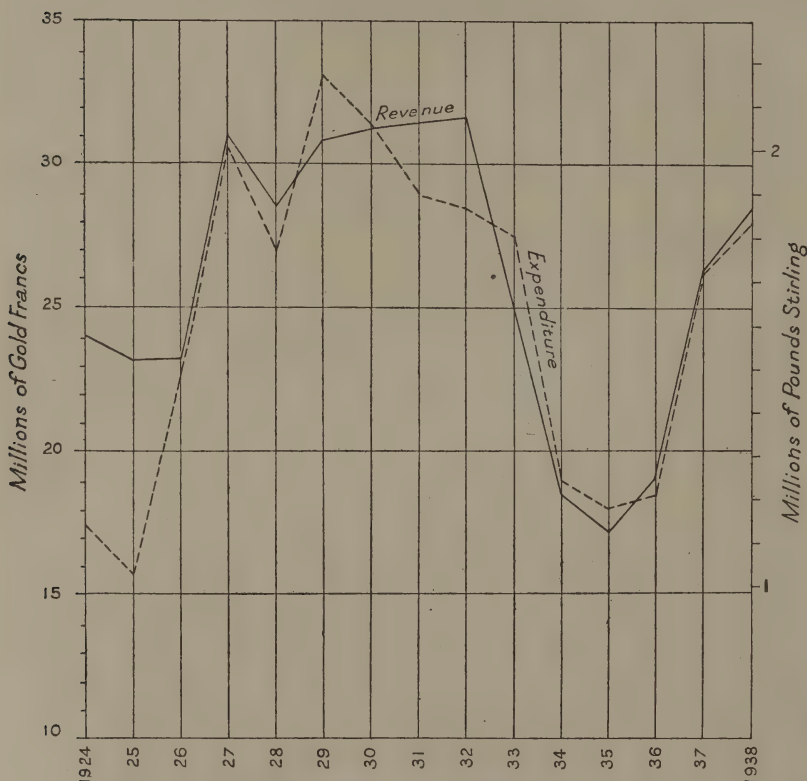


FIG. 45. Revenue and Expenditure

It is possible that the actual figures given in francs for the revenue and expenditure may provide a reasonably good clue to fluctuations of national finance. If the values are translated into the nominal sterling equivalent (25·22 to the £1 from 1924 to 1930, and 15·2 to

the £1 thereafter) a sharp and unnatural drop would appear. Albania procured most of her necessities from Italy, and the Italian currency does not contain that sharp step. It will probably suffice to give sterling equivalents, throughout, at 15·2, but the nominal difference of exchange should be remembered.

Banknotes of 100, 20, and 5 Albanian francs were issued as well as the following coins:

Gold: 100-, 50-, 20-, and 10-franc pieces.

Silver: 2- and 1-franc pieces.

Nickel: 1, $\frac{1}{2}$, and $\frac{1}{4}$ lek (= 20, 10, and 5 centimes).

Bronze: 2 and 1 centimes.

Revenue and Expenditure

The revenue and expenditure of the country, from 1924 to 1939, is given below.

TABLE VI

	<i>Revenue</i>		<i>Expenditure</i>	
1924-5	G. francs	24,109,257 £1,586,100	G. francs	17,374,500 £1,143,000
1925-6	G. francs	23,233,142 £1,527,000	G. francs	15,781,150 £1,038,200
1926-7	G. francs	23,375,454 £1,537,800	G. francs	23,150,557 £1,523,100
1927-8	G. francs	30,979,800 £2,038,100	G. francs	30,838,189 £2,028,800
1928-9	G. francs	28,645,000 £1,884,500	G. francs	26,984,422 £1,775,300
1929-30	G. francs	30,800,683 £2,026,300	G. francs	33,125,536 £2,179,200
1930-1	G. francs	31,385,000 £2,064,800	G. francs	31,385,000 £2,064,800
1931-2	G. francs	31,533,422 £2,073,500	G. francs	29,097,000 £1,914,250
1932-3	G. francs	31,588,395 £2,078,100	G. francs	28,500,000 £1,875,000
1933-4	G. francs	24,527,000 £1,613,700	G. francs	27,527,000 £1,810,900
1934-5	G. francs	18,507,000 £1,217,600	G. francs	18,888,000 £1,242,100
1935-6	G. francs	17,237,000 £1,134,000	G. francs	18,036,000 £1,183,800
1936-7	G. francs	18,879,000 £1,242,000	G. francs	18,584,000 £1,222,600
1937-8	G. francs	26,224,787 £1,725,200	G. francs	26,224,787 £1,725,250
1938-9	G. francs	28,565,400 £1,879,600	G. francs	28,235,400 £1,857,600

The principal sources of revenue in 1939 were (1) income from state property, especially expropriated lands, now being brought under irrigation; (2) tithe on landed property; (3) indirect taxes, especially customs and monopolies. The tithe revenue was farmed on ruinous terms, there was no cadastral survey, and small properties, overburdened with debt and arrears, were being forfeited to the State or bought up by the *bey*s, on whose support the Government relied.

From these figures and from the diagram (Fig. 45) it is plain the expenditure of the country has kept step with the revenue fairly well. But this is only part of the story. The figures may show the amount of money actually spent but not that which should have been spent. The Government could not afford to pay its officers an adequate salary. Naturally officials adopted the age-old methods of paying themselves, and in consequence nothing could be done without bribing one's way from the lowest to the highest. The effects of this state of affairs on any country are too well known to need comment. Suffice to say it became manifest that Albania could not struggle on, and much less pay its way, from its own undeveloped resources.

Banking

The Albanian National Bank, or *Banka Kombëtare e Shqipërisë*, founded in 1925, was national only in name, for the controlling interests were in Italian hands. The head office and its gold reserve were first of all established in Albania, but they were speedily transferred to Rome—possibly a wise procedure on the part of the shareholders. Branches of the bank were opened at Durazzo, Tirana, Berat, Elbasan, Gjinokastër, Korçë, Scutari, and Valona.

Other banks with branches in Albania were the Export Bank of Belgrade at Tirana; the Agricultural State Bank formed in 1937, and absorbed by the Banco di Napoli in 1939; also a subsidiary of this last concern, the Banco di Napoli Albanese, which opened in 1937 with a capital of 2,000,000 gold francs or £133,000.



102. Berat: Upper town within citadel walls. View SW.



103. Berat: Lower town, river and gorge, looking west. Kurd Pasha bridge and Goricë suburb (south bank), in middle distance



104. *Delvinë: view west by south over the town. Coastal ridge NW. of Sarandë in middle distance*



105. *The village of Dhërm (Drymades), 5 miles NW. of Himarë. View east over village*

CHAPTER XII

PORTS AND PRINCIPAL TOWNS

A. PORTS

THE four ports which have facilities of any sort are given in alphabetical order, but open roadsteads and anchorages are to be found in Chapter III (Coasts).

DURAZZO (*Gk.* Epidamnus, *Roman* Dyrrhachium, *Alb.* Durrës). Lat. $41^{\circ} 19' N.$, long. $19^{\circ} 28' E.$ Alt. sea-level to 200 ft. Pop. 'a small village' (1880); 600 (1916); 5,000 (1935); 9,000 (1937); 12,000 (1943). Prefecture; Law courts; Post, telegraph, W/T; Banca Nazionale di Albania, B. di Napoli; barracks; 5 schools (the former American school has been closed); 2 cinemas; hotels, *Isolabella, *Splendid, Miramare; garages; electricity; water. Market: Mondays.

Durazzo and its harbour lie at the extreme north of Durazzo bay and are sheltered from the west by the end of a ridge which projects half a mile southwards and is prolonged for another 2 miles by shoals and reefs. The ridge is part of a long mountain-fold which reappears to the south of Durazzo bay as Cape Laghi, and which continues north-north-west from Durazzo to end in Cape Pali. Immediately west of the town the ridge is but 250 feet high, but, after a col, it rises to 600 in the bare and rocky Mal i Durrësit, 2 miles north-north-west of Durazzo, sinking again to little above sea-level after another 2 miles. At this point is the Porta Romana, the ancient entrance to the lagoon, and beyond again the ridge rises to a wooded point 240 feet high at Cape Pali.

Immediately east of this ridge is a parallel depression in which is the large lagoon that used to act as harbour, and is prolonged north and south by marshes. The whole depression is known as the Kënetë e Durrësit, and drains south into Durazzo bay by a channel, a mile east of Durazzo, through the shingle beach, though it also has a sluice-channel at Porta Romana. The north end of the marsh is blocked by silt from the Erzen. In ancient times, when the lagoon was open to the sea, this was the strong position which attracted Greek colonists from Corcyra (Corfu) in the sixth century B.C.

East of the marsh is a line of low hills, giving shelter from east and north-east winds, and coming close to the long curving outline of Durazzo bay.

The bay itself is one of the best anchorages (14 to 15 ft.) on the Albanian coast. The harbour faces east-south-east and is enclosed, except for the entrance, by moles, wharves, and, on the north, by the natural shore. The southern half of the harbour is the main port.

The ancient city is close behind and north-west of the port and, in medieval and Moslem times, lay within strong Byzantine walls, with narrow streets. The southern end of the protecting ridge rises behind the town, which climbs its eastward face.

History

The Greek colony Epidamnus, founded from Corcyra (Corfu) in 617 B.C., became an important port of call between Greece and Italy; but quarrelled with its mother city, as well as with the natives, and was reinforced from Corinth in 435 B.C. Athens thereupon took the part of Corcyra, and so provided one of the pretexts for the Peloponnesian War (432-404 B.C.). In 232 B.C. Epidamnus was seized by an Illyrian chief, Glaucias, and in 229, under its native name, Dyrrhachium, made defensive alliance with Rome. As a 'free and allied city' it became Rome's eastward bridgehead against Macedon, and later the terminal port of the great thoroughfare (*Via Egnatia*) which runs, by Elbasan and Lake Ochrida, to Thessalonica (*Salonica*) and Byzantium, and also of the road southward into Greece by Apollonia (*Pojan*) and Buthrotum (*Butrinto*).

On the outbreak of the 'First Civil War' (49 B.C.) Pompey, whose main forces were in the eastern provinces, evacuated Italy and held Dyrrhachium. On 28 November Caesar sailed from Brindisi (*Brun-dusium*) and landed at Spila or Port Palermo, but his reinforcements were blockaded, and returning transports sunk, by Pompey's admiral Bibulus from Corcyra. Caesar crossed the Llogora pass, and reached Apollonia (Pojan) and the Seman river on 5 December. Pompey, advancing from Lake Ochrida, reached the line of the Shkumbi on the 7th, and held it. On 1 February Caesar's lieutenant Mark Antony landed, with 7,000 men and 800 cavalry, where Shëngjin now stands, and took Lesh (*class.* Lissus; *It.* Alessio). Pompey moved north to intercept him on the Mal i Kërçokës but failed; and Caesar made a detour through Krrabë and united his forces between Pompey's position and Dyrrhachium. Here on 5 May he was attacked from Dyrrhachium by Pompey's African reinforcements, and on 27 May Pompey brought light forces across Durazzo bay and established himself between Dyrrhachium and Caesar's position. This, however, left Caesar free to move south (29 May)

through country now friendly to him, and to attack Pompey's main base-camp and rendezvous in Thessaly. Withdrawing his wounded and baggage to Apollonia, he himself marched by Yannina and Metsovo. Pompey, intent on reaching Thessaly first, moved across Caesar's rear, by Melissopetra, Korçë, Kastoria, and the Bistritsa river, and on 29 June was utterly defeated by Caesar at Pharsalia between Larisa and Volo.

As the provincial capital of *Epirus Nova*, Dyrrhachium became prosperous, and in the fourth century politically important, as a fortress on the shortest route between Constantinople and Rome.

As early as A.D. 58 it had 70 Christian families and a bishop. In 449 it became an archbishopric. In 481 it was besieged by the Goths of Theodoric, and in the tenth and eleventh centuries was often attacked by the Bulgars but not taken. The Emperor Anastasius (491-518) was born here, and three of his towers on the wall remain.

The Normans, Robert Guiscard and his son Bohemund, attacked the city from Apulia (1081), defeated the Emperor Alexius Comnenus, and took it in February 1082, but the Byzantines recovered it. In 1185 the Norman William of Sicily took it, but lost it to Crusaders who transferred it to Venice (1203). Retaken by the Emperor Theodorus (1205) it passed, with Croia (Krujë), to Manfred of Sicily (1258) and to Charles of Anjou (1272). In 1273 it was destroyed by earthquakes and reoccupied by John of Anjou and later by Philip of Taranto till 1303. Annexed then to the Frank kingdom of Achaea (Morea), it was taken by the Serbs (1336) and held by the Topia family as vassals of the Ballshas (p. 181). In 1392 it was ceded to Venice and refortified, and the galley-harbour, of which traces are still visible, was cleared. Now healthy and prosperous, it attracted leading Albanian families, till Mohammed the Conqueror besieged it (1466). It was not, however, taken by the Turks till 1501, when the marsh dried sufficiently to expose its land-face.

The Turks neglected Durazzo, and in 1880 it was a small village. The modern population includes Turks and Greeks beside Albanians; the latter here are Gëgs; there is an Orthodox and a Catholic archbishop.

In 1912-1913 Durazzo was occupied by the Serbs 3 November to 6 March. Prince Wilhelm of Wied made it his capital (7 May 1912), but was confined to it till 23 May 1913. Essad Pasha was surrounded here (December 1914), but relieved by the Serbs (June 1915). On 15 December Italian troops arrived to cover the Serbian retreat from Belgrade; on 28 February 1916 Austrian troops made it a submarine base, and on 3 October 1918 it was bombarded by the Allies. The

Provisional Government of Albania had its seat here from 25 December 1918 to 27 March 1920.

The Town of To-day. The old Moslem town with its narrow lanes and high walls has been considerably altered. A few wide streets have been cut through and modern houses line them. On the south-western outskirts is a modern suburb with some small hotels and a tobacco factory. Immediately to the north is the old gipsy quarter, from which the port draws much of its casual labour, and north again, and also east on land reclaimed from the marsh, are modern bungalows. A central square, or 'piazza', is the focus of traffic and of both administration and trade. Streets radiating from it bear Italian names of doubtful permanence, whilst King Zog's recent palace lies due west of the city, on the slopes of the bluff.

Durazzo has an unpleasant reputation for malaria, but is in better shape to-day since the letting into the lagoon of salt water through the Porta Romana. Electricity is supplied by a small thermal power station on the east margin of the town. A second was projected in 1939, as also was a power-line from Kavajë. Sanitation is primitive. The water-supply, from four public fountains supplied by local springs, and from many wells, is quite inadequate. Even before the war water was brought by sea from Bari in Italy, and delivered into consumers' barrels on the quay, for lack of public storage. Among the many improvements planned in 1939 was a new water-supply from springs at Shënavlash (4 miles east of the town), but in 1942 it was decided to bring water by aqueduct from the Erzen river, 6 miles away, and to make filter-beds and large storage tanks. There is no cold-storage and no ice, save for what can be brought from Tirana.

Trade and Industry

As is usual in matters Albanian there are few statistics available, and none to specify the number or tonnage of ships using the port. In 1937 imports totalled 25,000 tons, and exports 32,500 tons in addition to over 24,000 head of cattle. The imports, which total more than half the import trade of Albania, are mainly cotton and woollen goods, sawn timber, cement, petroleum products, iron and steel, flour, rice, coffee, and sugar. The exports are olives, hides and skins, livestock, and eggs.

The *Azienda Generale Italiana Petroli* (A.G.I.P.) has a storage installation on the waterfront east of the town, at the root of the East Mole; the installation which is connected to the tanker berth on the East Mole by two pipe-lines (10 cm. and 6 cm. diameter respectively),

occupies a large rectangular site enclosed by walls, between the coastal road and the shore. In 1943 the installation consisted of 2 tanks of about 45 feet diameter, and a third about 80 feet diameter. The site of a fourth tank, of 45 feet diameter, is visible, but this tank has been destroyed or dismantled. In 1939 two of the tanks were stated to be used for motor spirits and one for kerosene. The present total capacity (1943) is estimated at about 7,000 metric tons: 4,000 tons for the larger tank and 1,500 each for the smaller ones.

Small local industries include saw-mills, a tobacco factory, two flour-mills, a macaroni factory, and a slaughter-house.

Detailed Description (see Fig. 46)

The Port has been reconstructed, but is not yet complete. It is slightly more than 9,000,000 square feet in area, but the north-eastern, and larger, part is still undredged, except alongside the East Mole (see below), and in it the maximum depth does not exceed 13 feet. The south-western portion, about 376,000 square feet, is the real port, and most of it is dredged to 23 feet.

On the north and north-west the harbour is bounded by the old shoreline and by quays, the latter at the southern end of the north-west face. On the west and east long moles reach out, with an entrance of 650 feet between them.

Accommodation. West Mole, three berths 492 feet, in 20 feet depth; North Quay one berth of 350 feet, in 20 feet; one of 200 feet in 12 feet; East Mole one of 350 feet in 20 feet; capacity, six ships of 10,000 tons. Discharge is mainly by ship's appliances, alongside West Mole, at wharves and North Quay, and into lighters: estimated daily capacity 1,550 tons on the quays, and 450 tons by lighter; not more than 1,500–2,000 tons could be cleared daily by road. Recent improvements affect only the quay-space. There is a decauville railway from the West Quay to the Custom House. There are warehouses and stacking space on West Mole and North Quay. Coal has been stored at the North Quay. The petrol-store (7,000 tons) is at the East Mole, with pipe-line from the seaward end. Inland oil stores are at Arapaj and Shijak. There are no docks, slipways, or repair facilities. The whole port area is enclosed by a wall, with two gates, (a) at the south end of North Quay, (b) about 110 yards farther east.

Men and stores may be landed at the quays and adjacent beaches east and west of the port; vehicles at the beaches.

The North Quay is 60 feet wide and about 700 yards long, but with only 13 feet alongside, ending about half-way from the West Mole to

the northern shore. From the centre of it the new jetty, a mooring pier of wood and reinforced concrete, juts out parallel to the West Mole, and has recently been extended to a length of 1,706 feet.

The West Mole is 1,100 yards long. The seaward face, starting

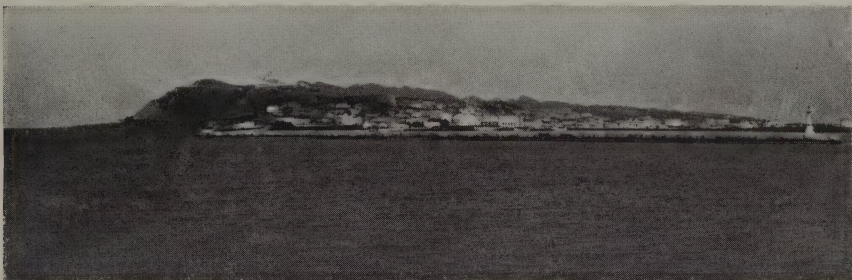


FIG. 46. Plan of Durazzo

south and parallel to the North Quay for 90 yards, turns south-east for 750 yards and then due east for 260 yards. The inner face starts directly south-east from the North Quay and diminishes in breadth from 394 feet, and then 312 feet, to a final 230 feet. The three wharves which correspond to these breadths (first, second, and third wharves) are each 492 feet long, with 20 feet depth alongside. For the remainder of its length the West Mole has no wharfage, and narrows to 40 feet. Throughout its length it has an external parapet, and the seaward face is foul alongside.



106. *Durazzo: the Byzantine walls on the road SE. to the quays*



107. *Durazzo: the port and town from south*



108. *Durazzo: looking SW. over Këneta e Durrësit*



109. *Durazzo: view SE. from Zog's Palace, over harbour*



110. *Elbasan: the old Turkish bazaar*

The East Mole is 1,450 yards long, and the last (SE.) 400 feet have a depth, in- and alongside, of 23 feet, used for oil tankers. It is wide enough for single, but not double, lorry traffic, and has no parapet. Two oil pipe-lines run from an adjacent petrol store to the end of the mole. In fair weather ships have berthed on its seaward side. A detached breakwater, 600 feet from the East Mole, extending 500 feet to the north-west, had been partly destroyed before 1941. At the shore end (NE.) of the mole, and 30 yards west of it, is a jetty 410 feet long and averaging 50 feet wide. This jetty, used only for small craft, has a cart track to the main road.

Equipment

A boat anchored in the port could, in 1941, use:

- 1 steam tug
- 11 large lighters
- 13 small boats.

There were one 40-ton floating crane and three smaller ones, but it is probable that further facilities have been added, in order to deal with shipments of iron to Italy.

Communications

A road leads northwards from Durazzo to Porta Romana and its sluice, but stops there and is of no general importance. Practically all traffic goes east, past the oil storage at the shore end of the East Mole, and crosses the outlet from the marshes. At $1\frac{1}{4}$ miles from the town the road divides to run north-east for Tirana (old road 24 miles) and Scutari (81 miles), and south-east also for Tirana (new road $23\frac{1}{2}$ miles) and Valona (177 miles). The fork of roads is, in reality, a cusp, pointed at Durazzo, from the main coastal highway from Scutari to Valona.

There is a radio telegraph station at Durazzo.

SARANDË (*class.* Onchesmus, *Gk.* Agii Saranta; *It.* sometimes Santi Quaranta 'Forty Saints', although this name is used more for the bay than for the town (for a brief period 'Porto Edda'). Lat. $39^{\circ} 52' N.$, long. $20^{\circ} 01' E.$ Pop. 1,100 (1926); 1,900 (1931). Barracks; Banks of Albania and of Naples; Hotels, Mbretnor, Pirro-Pallas; Post and Telegraph Office; power station and W/T station.

The larger bay, of which Sarandë bay is the northern tip, lies opposite the north channel between Corfu and the mainland, and is open to west winds except near the town of Sarandë.

Sarandë itself is 8 miles from the nearest point of Corfu and 9 miles north-north-east of Cape Scala. Nestling in a small bay surrounded east, north, and west by the Eremecë range, it is sheltered from all but south-west winds and cut off from its hinterland except over a pass eastwards, 600 feet high. Beyond this pass, and the hills which dominate the eastern shore of the bay, are the valley of the L. i Kalasës and the Butrinto marshes. The hills north of the town rise steeply to 1,500 feet. A mile to the west a small cove, Lemniona bay, equally sheltered and connected by an easy road to Sarandë, adds opportunity for small craft.

At the east end of the town is the custom-house, and opposite it a wharf and two stone piers.

History

Ancient Onchesmus was always a port of call and refuge on the voyage between Greece and Italy. Cicero, returning from the East, records a favourable 'wind from Onchesmus'. In Byzantine times its monastery of the 'Forty Saints' gave it prosperity and a new name, but under Ottoman rule its utility ended, though under Ali Pasha it became a port for Yannina.

The modern town lines the shore for 700 yards, with 300 feet of sea-wall, and extends back for 120 yards to the slopes of the hill behind. Recent photographs show considerable growth, especially at the western end, where there is a re-entrant between spurs. West again stands an ancient fort on the sheltering promontory, and over a low col runs the road to Lemniona bay, where there is more recent building. From the east end the road, turning south and then east over the hills, passes between an ancient Byzantine church and the ruins of Lëkurës village. The climate is warm but malarious, due to the Butrinto marshes. Drinking-water is scarce, and comes from wells $1\frac{1}{2}$ miles distant.

Trade and Industry

Sarandë is the port for Yannina, Korçë, and Bitolj. During the Greek advance into Albania, in 1940, it was used as an advanced base. Its principal asset is coastwise traffic and it has no local industry save the preparation of dried mullet-roe (*It. botargo*) for export. Steamships from Italian and Greek ports call here, and local small craft connect with services calling at Corfu. In 1937, 734 vessels entered the port,



FIG. 47. Plan of Sarandë

bringing 6,000 passengers and 14,000 tons of goods, and exporting 1,450 head of cattle. Labour is plentiful, and the daily capacity is 500-600 tons.

Detailed Description

The small bay is roughly $\frac{3}{4}$ mile wide by $\frac{1}{2}$ mile in depth. At half a mile from the coast there are 30 fathoms, and 10 fathoms 1,000 feet from the shore, but near Point Balada is a shoal with soundings $6\frac{1}{2}$ to 13 feet. Large vessels anchor near the middle of the bay in 15 to 17 fathoms on mud and sand.

There are no quays where large craft can lie alongside, no lifting appliances, and no warehouses. A curved mole encloses a small boat harbour, and there are two jetties for lighters.

Quays

The curved mole, opposite the custom-house in the centre of the town, is 250 feet long, and the entrance to the boat harbour, on the eastern side, is 30 feet wide. Depths are 5 to 6 feet outside, 1 to 2 inside, but about 5 lighters can lie alongside.

An eastern jetty of wood, 100 yards from the boat harbour, is 80 feet long, 5 feet wide, and has 4 feet of water opposite the head.

The western jetty, 600 yards from the boat harbour, is 120 feet long, 12 feet wide, and has 10 feet of water opposite its head.

In Lemniona bay, on its eastern flank, is a pier 80 feet long and 20 feet broad at its narrowest, outer, end. It is reported to have at least 12 feet of water at its head.

Communications

The one road to the interior leaves the town eastwards, turns south, and then forks. The right-hand and coastal road continues for another 2 miles to the monastery of Shëngjergj, overlooking Butrinto. The left, or main road, turns east again, crosses a 600-foot col, and, after a further $1\frac{1}{2}$ miles, forks again. Turning north-north-west the main road, over mountainous country, passes Port Palermo (30 miles), Himarë (37), and crossing the Llogora pass reaches Krionero (78) and Valona (82 miles). Continuing east from the fork a road reaches Delvinë ($11\frac{1}{4}$ miles) and Gjorgucat (22 miles), whence roads lead north-west to Gjinokastër and south-east to Yannina.

There is postal connexion to Corfu and Yannina. Telegraph and telephone connect to Gjinokastër, Yannina, and Corfu; the cable lands north-west of the bay.

SHĚNGJIN (San Giovanni di Medua). North end of the gulf of Drin.

Lat. $41^{\circ} 49' N.$, long. $19^{\circ} 36' W.$ Pop. 100-200.

This small village and growing port, in a small bay 1,000 yards wide and 500 yards deep, lies at the foot of a steep narrow valley in the Mal i Rrëncit. That range runs behind the village from south-east to north-west, rising steeply from the shore, and projecting a spur southwards to shelter the port from the west. Half a mile east of the village the mountain reaches 1,000 feet, and thereafter, at 1 mile, drops again nearly to sea-level in the Kënetë e Kakarriqit. The Mal i Rrëncit ends just west of Lesh, $3\frac{3}{4}$ miles south-east, but the shore, of sand and shingle, bends southwards, half a mile from ShĚngjin, curving out west to the delta of the former course of the Drin, $4\frac{1}{2}$ miles away. Between Mal i Rrëncit and the sea are swamps and marshes. West of the town the protecting spur is 400 feet, dropping to 80 feet at S. Giovanni point, its southern end, from which a breakwater extends 900 feet south-east.

The entrance to the port is narrow (about 30 yds.) and has but 3 fathoms of water, but deepens inside to between 20 and 29 feet, with a tendency to silt up. Large vessels lie outside the port in from 7 to 12 fathoms, sand and mud. The south-east sirocco may be troublesome but not dangerous, whilst squalls from the north, coming down a funnel in the mountain, may be dangerous.

History

As San Giovanni di Medua, ShĚngjin took its place in the political exchanges which followed upon Austria's encroachment on Serbia in 1908. Austria and Germany were then working for penetration to Asia Minor. The Baghdad railway was in question, and political control threatened to follow that of communication. As a counter-measure Russia envisaged an all-Slav railway, through Bulgaria, to end in San Giovanni di Medua.

Trade and Industry

So far traffic at ShĚngjin is mainly coastwise. There are no local industries and the trade is that of Scutari and Lesh. No reliable figures of exports and imports are available, but it is probable that minerals have been exported to Italy, and that military traffic has been continuous during the war.

The Modern Town

In 1940 there were but 100 inhabitants of the small village, which

lies in the north-west corner of the bay. There was a harbour office, a custom-house, and a post office. During the war, however, the port has been improved, and probably facilities and buildings have been added.

Water is got from a well near the ruined, but now restored, church on the west of the bay. A stream runs down from the gorge just north of the village. There is a lagoon south-east of the town, but the water therein is undrinkable.

Detailed Description

Quays and Jetties. There are seven jetties whose relative positions and sizes are shown on Fig. 48. Only two of these existed before 1940.

Approximate details of the jetties, numbered as on Fig. 48, are given below:

<i>Jetty</i>	<i>Length</i> (ft.)	<i>Width</i> (ft.)	<i>Depth alongside</i> <i>head, from chart</i> (ft.)	<i>Remarks</i>
No. 1	280	20	16	Cleared space of about 1,500 sq. yds. between root of jetty and road.
No. 2	50	30	5	..
No. 3	50	8	3	..
No. 4	450	40	20	Completed since 1941.
No. 5	400	12	16	Appears damaged 250 ft. from inner end.
No. 6	400	20	10	..
No. 7	300	20	6	Separated from No. 6 jetty by 75-100 ft. only.

At the head of No. 5 jetty there is a platform 70 feet by 35 feet, with the longer side at right angles to the line of the jetty. This gives it the appearance of a pier, but ships of up to 2,000 tons have been seen berthed alongside the western side of the platform, the stern projecting into the harbour.

There are no cranes at any of the jetties.

All the jetties lead directly to the main road.

Estimated Daily Capacity. In 1940 the daily capacity was put at 300 tons, but it seems now to be quadrupled (1,200).

Harbour Craft. A few lighters and caïques serve shipping, and there is a 5-ton water-boat.

Warehouses. Five large buildings with the appearance of single-story warehouses have been built on the western side of the bay, two on the eastern and three on the western side of the road. They are



111. *Elbasan: plain and town, view NNW.*



112. *Gjinokastër: the main shopping street*



113. *Gjinokastër: view NW. across town from Ali bey Tepelenë fort*



114. *Himarë, looking north over the town. Peaks of M. i Çikës on skyline to right*

each about 120 feet long and 60 feet wide, and those on the western side of the road stand in a recess cut out of the hill-side.

The various buildings round the head of the bay, most of which are on the seaward side of the road, all appear to be connected with the working of the port.



FIG. 48. *Plan of Shēngjin*

There are twelve sheds, probably for storage purposes, behind the cultivated fields on the north-eastern side of the bay.

About 4 miles along the road to Lesh there is a stores dump covering an area of about 265 by 230 yards on the south side of the road, just before it turns east to bridge the Drin.

Communications

The main road east and then south-east, to Lesh, $5\frac{1}{4}$ miles, is a good two-way asphalted thoroughfare. Through Lesh runs the coastal

highway from Scutari to Valona. From Lesh, Scutari is 25 miles north, Tirana south-east 53, and southwards lie Durazzo $56\frac{1}{4}$ and Valona $133\frac{1}{4}$.

VALONA (*class.* Avlon 'channel'; *Tosk* Vlorë (Vlora), *Geg.* Vlonë (Vlona)). Lat. $40^{\circ} 28' N.$, long. $19^{\circ} 29' E.$ Pop. 6,500 (1916), 9,100 (1937). Cap. of prefecture; aerodrome; 2 banks; civil hospital, anti-malaria clinic, lunatic asylum; 4 hotels; 2 or 3 ice-making plants; 4 boys' schools, and schools for girls and infants.

Valona bay is a deep gulf, pointing south-east into a fork between two long and high northerly spurs from Mal i Çikës. The point of the fork is 12 miles south-south-east of the southern end of the gulf, and the Llogora pass, carrying the road south to Himarë and Sarandë, marks it. The eastern spur runs almost north to end in small fertile hills, and finally in flat alluvial plains, east and north of Valona itself. It forms the eastern edge of the bay, and summits upon it reach over 3,000 feet. The western fork runs north-west by north to form the western edge of the bay, and is generally known by its Turkish name of Karaburun. It rises to 2,500 feet, is sheer from the sea, and its north-western tip (or 'tongue') is Cape Linguetta (Kep i Gjuhëzës). Three and a quarter miles farther north-west, along the axis of Karaburun, is its continuation in Saseno island, which lies opposite the 5-mile entrance to Valona bay and between Cape Linguetta and Cape Treporti. The northern shore of the bay, on which lies Skele, the port of Valona, is low lying, and westwards, towards Cape Treporti, is alluvial, made by the silt from the Vijosë river. The southern shore of the lake is also silt, formed by the Izvor (Nisvoro) stream and its tributary, the L. i. Dukatit, which flow north from the fork, and join 3 miles south of the beach. The bay itself, sheltered from all but north-west winds, is 12 miles from north to south, and 5 from east to west.

Anchorage. There are five anchorages in Valona bay. All are exposed to the prevailing winds, but, in general, the holding ground, mud and sand, is good. The most convenient anchorage is between Skele and the lighthouse on Pelasgia point, in depths of 10 to 13 fathoms. It is exposed to the north-west, and the hills lying to the eastward give little protection from the north-east Bora. Another anchorage is off the oil jetty at Krionero, 2 miles south, in 10 to 15 fathoms, about 250 yards off shore, or in less depth closer in. This affords better protection from the Bora. The most sheltered anchor-

ages are in Port Dukati at the southern end of Valona bay, but here the holding ground is reported to be unreliable. The best anchorage is reported to be about 1,200 yards north-west of the mouth of the Izvor river, in 16 fathoms, stiff mud. Small craft can find a well-sheltered anchorage on the south-western side of Valona bay in Raguzeo cove in 9 to 12 fathoms. The importance of the bay lies not so much in its situation, for it is exposed to the prevailing weather, but in its communications and in the mineral resources which it serves. Skele, the port of Valona, is $1\frac{1}{4}$ miles south of the city. The two will grow together and become as much one as are Edinburgh and Leith. They will be considered together, therefore, whilst Krionero (Uj të ftohtë) and Saseno island will follow.

Valona and Skele

Valona and its port lie just below the western slopes of a line of limestone hills which project north from Mal i Çikës. This spur disappears into small hills north of Valona which is sheltered from the east. To west and north-west lie the airfield, saltpans, the large salt lagoon Knetë e Nartës (Valona lake), and the silt-formed flats of the Vjosë river.

History. The situation of Valona attracted early Greek settlers; their small city, Avlon, struck coins about 400 B.C., and held territory as far as the Vjosë (*class.* Aous) river. In the Roman Civil War it victualled Caesar's force and resisted Octavius, one of Pompey's generals. In the fifth century A.D. it had a bishop. In 1258 it was transferred to the Norman king Manfred of Sicily as part of the dowry of his Greek wife Helen. From 1266 to 1372 it was an outpost of Charles of Anjou, but was recovered for Byzantium by Andronicus II. In 1345 it was taken by Stephen Dushan. But the Balsha princes held it, with all south Albania, till they sold it in 1417 to Venice. The Turks took and fortified it, but the Venetians recovered it till 1504, and again in 1690. Later it was held by the Pasha of Berat, had a reputation for piracy (1810), and was taken by Ali Pasha (1812).

In 1912 (8 Nov.) Ismail Vlora, a local *bey*, proclaimed here an independent Albania. The Greeks blockaded it and attacked by the Llogora pass from Himarë. Valona was the seat of the first Albanian Government, but was taken by insurgents in August 1914, and occupied by Italy (26 Dec.). This was confirmed by the Treaty of London. In 1920 Valona was repeatedly attacked by Albanian forces which had expelled the Italians from the interior; and on 2 August the Italians withdrew by agreement.

During the invasion of Albania the Italians landed here large numbers of men and a quantity of stores.

The Town. The hills, east and north-east, are covered with olive-groves, and the old town lies on their lower slopes. The old houses are substantial two-storied and tile-roofed stone buildings. In front of many are closed courtyards in which are wells. Streets, narrow, winding and paved with setts, are unsuitable for two-way traffic. West and south of the old town are newer, modern, buildings including the government offices. Farther south and west are bungalows. An airfield lies due west of the town, between it and the saltpans of the government monopoly.

One and a half miles to the south is Skele, and on the main road connecting it to Valona are barracks and a few bungalows. Two light railways converge upon Skele. One, from Selenicë (10 miles NE.), brings asphalt to the east jetty, whilst the other leads to the saltpans, north-west from the west jetty. Along the road on which this latter tramway is laid, houses, probably bungalows and cottages, stretch for a mile, but in irregular pattern. On the front behind the jetties and the intervening beach is a confused assortment of buildings and warehouses, many of which are of recent construction. The custom-house and harbour-master's office are just north of the eastern jetty.

Water is supplied from four small cisterns, fed by springs, and is good but hard, and insufficient in summer. There are many private wells. In 1939, a year of ambitious projects, water was to be brought by pipe-line from Krionero. Sanitation is primitive. Electricity is generated at Skele.

Trade and Industry (inclusive of Krionero)

As usual there are no official statistics concerning the number and tonnage of ships using the port. Italian reports specify 337 steamships and 158 sailing-ships in 1937. In that same year imports totalled 5,325 tons plus 4,125 cubic feet of goods measured by volume. Exports were 57,689 tons, including oil shipped from Krionero, and over 9,000 head of livestock. Coastwise trade no doubt adds considerably to the total and is not included in the above figures. For example, there is considerable export of the asphalt mined at Selenicë, and of the salt produced west of Valona. Olive-oil is also exported. There are flour-mills and soap works.

Detailed Description (see Fig. 49)

Summary. In the open roadstead are no off-lying dangers. Ships



115. *Kavajë main street*



116. *Konispol, the southernmost town in Albania: view ESE.*



117. *Korçë: looking SE. over the town towards the Moravë range*



118. *Krujë, looking north*

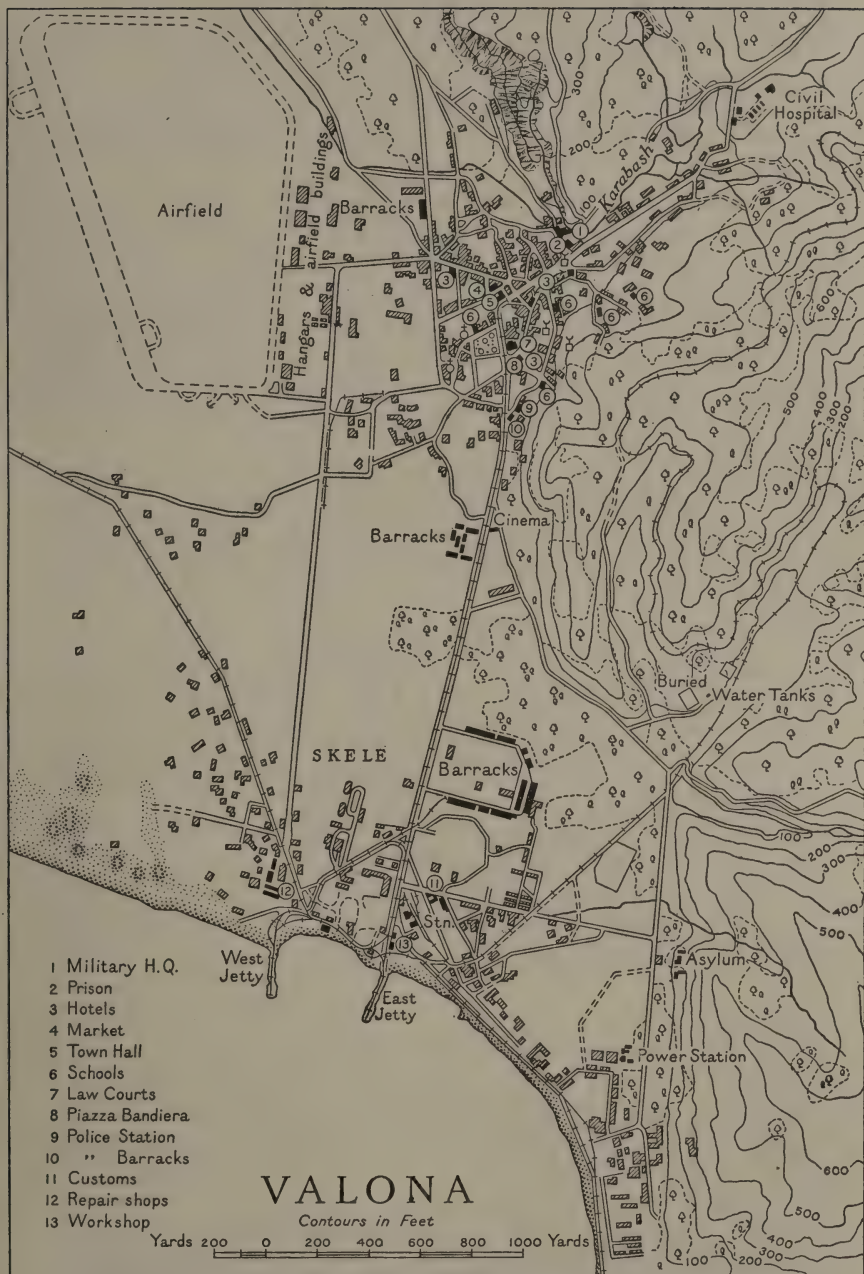


FIG. 49. Plan of Valona

may anchor as near the two jetties as depth of water permits. Ships can come alongside, however, only at the western jetty.

This western jetty is mainly used for asphalt, and the eastern for general trade. Both are served by a decauville railway carrying only small trucks.

Accommodation. Twenty to twenty-five ships of from 5,000 to 15,000 tons can anchor in the roadstead. On the west side of the western jetty there is a berth 200 feet long in 12 feet of water.

Quays. The eastern jetty is 630 feet long and varies from 25 feet wide (first 450 ft.) to 30 feet. For the last 50 feet the depth alongside is 12 feet. At the extreme end is a 3-ton, hand-operated sheerlegs. A narrow-gauge rail-track runs along both sides of the rough stone roadway. The whole is built on concrete piles with heavy timber road bearers.

The western jetty is of similar construction and is 540 feet long. A spur projects south-westwards from a point 220 feet from the end of the jetty, and it is only seawards of the fork that there is more than 10 feet of water. There is a 10-ton fixed crane on the end of the main jetty.

There are no cranes other than the above.

Harbour Craft. There are three tugs, one motor-boat, and 11 barges, one of which is motor-driven. A dozen row-boats and some outboard motor-boats serve passenger traffic. In addition to the above a private company—*Società Vlora e lirë*—has one tug, several barges, and a motor-boat.

Daily Capacity. About 30 tons an hour, or 300 per diem, at each jetty, and this amount can be cleared by road.

Water, Coal, and Oil. Water is supplied at Krionero, but not at Skele. The supply of coal is very limited and must be loaded by hand. Oil is shipped at Krionero and not at Skele.

Communications

Valona is well served by roads. The main road north—a good, asphalted, two-way highroad—passes through Fier (25½ miles), Lushnje (43 miles), Rrogozhinë (54 miles), Durazzo (85 miles), Lesh (133 miles), and Scutari (158 miles). A fork east at Fier leads to Berat (56 miles), and one at Rrogozhinë to Elbasan (84 miles) and so to the Via Egnatia. Tirana (105 miles) is reached either by Elbasan or from Durazzo. The Sarandë (82 miles) road south is also good. A fair road leads east to Tepelenë (51 miles), and thence either by Këlcyrë or by Gjinokastër and Gjorgucat to Yannina.

There is a steamship service from Trieste, which calls also at Brindisi and continues to the eastern Mediterranean.

A telegraph cable, on the route from Istanbul to Otranto, leaves the shore $1\frac{1}{2}$ miles west of the town, and passes between Cape Linguetta and Saseno island.

Krionero (Uj të ftohtë)

General Description

From Skele the coastline bends south to fringe the lower slopes of the scrub-covered hills. Two and a half miles south is Batteria point, and for that distance buildings and installations are many. The first $1\frac{1}{2}$ miles, taking the north-east corner of the bay, and as far as Pelasgia point, have a narrow sandy beach backed by hutments, stores, and a hangar. There are three minor jetties in this reach. At Pelasgia point is the light hut, and behind it the military hospital, on a rocky plateau on the hill-side. A winding branch-road serves it. Just south of the hospital, and between it and the sea, are four covered-in oil tanks, holding 20,000 tons, at the end of a pipe-line from the Kuçovë oil-field. The rate of supply was 1,000 tons per diem before the war. The oil is pumped on by hose connexion to a buoy, about 220 yards from the shore, and lying beyond the end of a jetty. The jetty is about 280 feet long and 22 feet wide. The depth alongside its head is from 8 to 10 feet. Tankers can be loaded at a rate of 800 tons per hour. There are no port facilities. Immediately south of that jetty is a rocky point (Korikosso point), through which the Sarandë road tunnels. South again is a small beach at the southern end of which is Krionero. Here there are springs which supply water for Saseno island and for shipping. The water is piped to the end of the rocky point on which stands Krionero, a small group of living-houses and sheds. There is also a distillery, between the shore and the road. From Krionero to Pelasgia point is a small rocky bay.

SASENO ISLAND (*class.* Sanson). Lat. $40^{\circ} 25' N.$, long. $19^{\circ} 17'$; $2\frac{1}{2}$ m. N.-S.; $1\frac{1}{4}$ m. E.-W.

Saseno island lies in the entrance to Valona bay, $3\frac{1}{2}$ m. north of Cape Linguetta (Kep i Gjuhëzës), and $5\frac{1}{2}$ miles west of Cape Treporti (*see* Fig. 49).

General Description

Saseno rises sheer from the sea along the outer (western) face, but is slightly less steep along the eastern. It has two distinct limestone

hills each over 1,000 feet, connected by a col. From the col two stream lines lead seawards, one westwards and the other north-eastwards. The latter, and more important, has the northern hill to the west, and a spur about 400 feet high to the east. Low scrub covers the whole island except on the sheltered lower slopes of the eastern face, which are covered by small trees. Cliffs ring the shore except at S. Nicolo bay, the outfall of the main stream, where the harbour has been made, and where there is anchorage sheltered from south and west. In the shelter of the head of the valley above are the barracks and the hospital, lying just east of the col and south-west of the harbour. Naval installations and storehouses surround the harbour. A water tank is on the northern end of the northern hill. Scattered sheds and buildings are probably connected with coast defence. A road runs the whole length of the island, about 700 feet above the sea except where it descends to the harbour, but always on the lee (eastern) side. Zigzag tracks lead down to coves. There is no water save what is brought by water-boat from Krionero.

There is an extensive system of electric power lines to the principal points on the island. Power is supplied by a Diesel station, stated to be close south of Porto San Nicolo. Several overhead lines converge on two small buildings next to the tank at the root of the mole, and these may contain equipment connected with the electricity supply.

Porto San Nicolo

To the north of the harbour is a mole extending north-eastward for 250 feet, and then eastward for 850 feet. To the south-east lies a headland, and from its northern point a breakwater about 250 feet long projects northward. The entrance to the harbour between the head of the mole and the head of the breakwater is 310 feet wide, with charted depths ranging from 13 to 26 feet, the deeper water being in the northern part of the entrance. Charted depths in the north-western part of the harbour are from 18 to 24 feet, shoaling gradually towards the south-east. But a dredger is known to have been at work, and depths in the harbour may, by now, have been improved.

Quays

The mole is quayed on the harbour side for the first 650 feet from the shore, with charted depths of from 12 to 22 feet alongside the further 450 feet. The quay is of stone and concrete, varying in width from 20 to 30 feet. Behind it the wall of the mole is raised several feet.

The south-western shore of the harbour consists of a hard with

shoal water alongside. Extending in a north-easterly direction from the hard, at a point about 400 feet south-east of the root of the mole, is a T-shaped concrete pier, which extends about 85 feet from the hard and is about 14 feet wide. The right-angled extension at the head of the T is about 135 feet long and 15 feet wide, with a charted depth of 17 feet alongside. From a point about 150 feet south-east of the root of the pier a concrete jetty, about 18 feet wide, extends north-eastward for about 135 feet. Depths alongside are charted as from 6 to 11 feet, but may have been improved by dredging.

There is a mooring buoy in the centre of the harbour, and several smaller buoys or stakes near the southern shore; ships too large to come alongside the mole, the pier, or the jetty, moor off and run stern lines ashore to bollards on the hard. In the southern corner of the harbour there is a landing slipway for small craft, with a boathouse behind it.

Harbour Facilities

There is a small steam travelling crane, with an estimated capacity of 15 tons, and a larger floating crane has been seen in the harbour. There are numerous warehouses, and workshops west of the harbour.

Communications

There is telephone communication within the island, one or two W/T stations, and a cable connecting the island with the mainland and Italy.

PRINCIPAL TOWNS

BALLSH (*class.* Byllis). Lat. $40^{\circ} 35' N.$, long. $19^{\circ} 44' E.$ Alt. 650 ft. Pop. 175; Moslem. Ballsh is 1 mile south of the Gjanicë tributary of the Seman. 8 miles north-east of Selenicë, 14 miles south-west of Berat; and on the road from Fier (13 miles) to Tepelenë (24 miles). Petroleum was found here by the Anglo-Persian Oil Co., but has not been worked extensively.

BERAT (*class.* Antipatria; Albanorum oppidum; Pulcheriopolis). Lat. $40^{\circ} 42' N.$, long. $19^{\circ} 58' E.$ Alt. 780 ft. Pop. 1,500 (1910); 8,500 (1916); 10,000 (1936). Hotels, Kollumbo, Royal.

Berat lies on the right bank of the Osum (Lum i Beratit), a little below its junction with the L. i Molishtit. Here the Osum has cut a 300-foot gorge through a limestone spur west of the valley to form the precipitous castle-rock at the foot of which lies the town, on

several terraces overlooking the market-place and *hans*. The river is unfordable, with steep banks, a good stone bridge, and several ferries. The town has three distinct quarters: the citadel (without water and of little military value), the old town on the left bank of the Osum, and Goricë suburb on the right bank, whence it is a two-days' climb to M. i Tomorrit (*class.* Tomarus). Berat had formerly a large Orthodox minority (about half the population, 1916); there is still a bishop, and Christian quarter in the upper town. There are also numerous Vlachs in the town and lowland villages. The valley is fertile, producing wine, oil, and fruit, with good grazing, but it is malarious and liable to floods. To the north-west the lowland appears continuous meadow to the Shkumbî, but it is dissected by water-courses and has much marsh. With these natural advantages, Berat has become the metropolis both of the long trough of the Osum towards Ersekë (Kolonjë) and Leskovik, and of the more open and fertile country of Mallakastër (p. 56). The position resembles that of Elbasan and Tepelenë, but its fertility is not so great, even on the larger estates where olives are grown. Water is plentiful, from the river and from wells, and an aqueduct has been planned.

History. Berat, an ancient Illyrian and Albanian town, rebuilt by Theodosius II and renamed after his sister Pulcheria, was refortified by Michael Comnenus. It was taken by Catalan adventurers for the Angevin kings of Naples (1270), by Stephen Dushan for Serbia (1345); and by the Myzeqe (Musaki) dynasty of Ballsh as its capital (1450–1476). It was held by Ali Pasha 1809 and by Kurt Kastriotë (1811), and became the centre of the Albanian Leagues of 1879 and 1914. It was occupied by the Italians from 1918 to 1921.

Communications. (1) Motor-road north-west following the Osum valley, to Ura e Hasan Beut, then west to Fier, on the highroad between Valona and Durazzo, and north to Lushnje for Elbasan, Durazzo, and Tirana. (2) Road south by Gllavë, Golemanj, and the Zall i Dëshnicës to Këlcyrë (*Gk.* Klisura) in the Vjosë valley; thence to Tepelenë and to Përmet for Perat on the Greek frontier, and for Yannina; (3) track north to cross the Devoll river near Shtërmën for Elbasan and Tirana; (4) road south-east along the right bank of the Osum to Çorovodë.

BURREL. Lat. 41° 37' N., long. 20° 01' E. Alt. 950 ft. Pop. 358: Moslem. Centre of Mat sub-prefecture and strategical centre of the highlands; headquarters and training school for gendarmes.

Communications. Motor-roads (1) by Mat and Fan valleys to west

coast highway at Milot, with bypass to Lesh; (2) to west coast highway by Krujë; (3) tracks to Tirana by Gur i bardhë and by Shëngjergj; (4) east by Lis and Murrë to Peshkopi; (5) by Klos and Shëpenzë to Debar; (6) south by Shëngjergj and Labinot to Elbasan.

BUTRINTO (*Alb.* Butrint; *class.* Buthrotum). Lat. $39^{\circ} 45' N.$, long. $20^{\circ} 02' E.$

The settlement lies at the outlet of Lake Butrinto (*Liqen i Butrintit*) about 2 miles from the sea. The lake (5 miles north-south; 1-2 miles east-west) is navigable for 3 miles from its outlet, then shallow owing to silt from the Kalasë and Bistricë rivers. There are profitable fisheries, of which the revenues were conferred by Ali Pasha on the Bishop of Yannina. There is good shooting, especially duck, snipe, and woodcock, with wild pig and jackals.

History. Buthrotum claimed foundation by refugees from Troy. In the tenth century A.D. it had a bishop and was held in turn by the Despots of Epirus, by Manfred of Sicily, and by Angevin kings of Naples. Venice acquired it in 1386, the Turks in 1502, Venice again in 1716, and France after the Treaty of Campo Formio. Ali Pasha held it 1748-1800 and again 1805. The ancient site has been excavated by the Italians.

Communications. Road north to Sarandë; track south-west to Konispol; small motor-vessels on the lake.

DELVINË. Lat. $39^{\circ} 57' N.$, long. $20^{\circ} 07' E.$ Alt. 790 ft. Pop. 2,000 (1916), 3,300 (1931), 3,000 (1938). Centre of sub-prefecture.

On sloping hills in an opening of the high ridge of M. i Kostarit among side ravines of the Bistricë river with one-arch bridges. The houses of brick are isolated among vineyards and groves of olive and orange, and the plain below is wide and fertile. On a conical rock is the ruined castle, below it the bazaar. The majority of the inhabitants are Greek-speaking Albanians, with some Greek settlers. There are several mosques and one church.

Communications. Road to Sarandë (10 miles). Track over M. i Murzinës to Gjorgucat in the Dhrino valley, for Gjinokastër and Yannina. In the neighbourhood are hot springs.

DEBAR (*Alb.* Dibër, Dibra; *class.* Uscana). Lat. $41^{\circ} 31' N.$, long. $20^{\circ} 32' E.$ Alt. 2,500 ft. Pop. 10,000-12,000 (1916).

The town lies in Yugoslavia 2 miles from the right bank of the Black Drin, in a strong position commanding the upper valley

towards Lake Ochrida. The inhabitants are Albanians and Bulgars (both Moslem and Christian), backward and unruly. There is an Orthodox bishop and a large Turkish barrack. The town produces leather goods and steel-work. In the neighbourhood are mineral baths.

Communications. Roads: north to Peshkopi, south to Struga for Ohrid, west to Shëpenzë for Burrel and Elbasan.

DUKAT. Lat. $40^{\circ} 15' N.$, long. $19^{\circ} 34' E.$ Pop. 1,800 (1930); Moslem and Orthodox. Alt. 1,700 ft.

Dukat lies 1 mile from the right bank of the L. i Dukatit river (*class.* Celydnus), on a rugged spur of M. i Çikës, overlooking the highroad from Valona to Himarë and Sarandë by the Llogora pass (3,000 ft.). The town was destroyed by earthquake in 1931.

DURAZZO, *see* 'Ports'.

ELBASAN (*class.* Scampa; Albanopolis). Lat. $41^{\circ} 07' N.$, long. $20^{\circ} 06' E.$ Alt. 430 ft. Pop. 12,000 (1916), 14,000 (1937). Cap. of prefecture. Training centre for teachers; alcohol factory; hotels: Grand, Park.

The town stands close below the mountains near the right bank of the Shkumbî river, a little below its emergence from the wooded highland. It retains an Oriental and medieval appearance, with narrow cobbled streets and open side-gutters. The modern town is prosperous with good public buildings and industries in leather, silk, and wool. Shops, bakeries, and eating-houses are timber built with wide eaves and open front. The Christian quarter is within the castle; outside most of the inhabitants are Moslem, and there are many minarets, cypresses, and walled gardens. Farther away is a Vlach settlement. Water-supply from wells is inadequate, but a pipe-service from springs, and an aqueduct, are reported under construction. The climate is good, and supplies are plentiful. There are hot springs at Banjat e Llixhës 6 miles east. The plain to south-west is sheltered (Jan. av. 40°), fertile, and very hot in summer (78.5° July, av. 103° August 1918). Mediterranean crops flourish.

History. Scampa had a bishop in the fifth century. The town was destroyed by the Bulgarians in the tenth, and as rebuilt in 1467 by Mohammed II, had a four-sided castle with deep moat and three gates. Ali Pasha used its defences, and encouraged its trade; but the fort was dismantled by Reshid Pasha in 1832. In 1909 a



119. *Krujë: ancient fort on crag overlooking town*



120. *Krujë: looking NNW. across town. Narrow main street in foreground*



121. *Leskovik, looking west*



122. *Tepelenë*



FIG. 50. Plan of Elbasan

National Congress was held here, but its Moslems opposed Prince Wilhelm of Wied in 1914. Serbs, Bulgars, Austrians, and Italians occupied it in turn between 1915 and 1918. A stone bridge over the Shkumbî, built in the eighteenth century by Kurt Pasha of Berat, was damaged in 1918, but has been repaired.

Communications. Motor-roads (1) to Tirana 34 miles, over Krrabë, and by Petrelë and the Erzen valley; (2) to Durazzo 60 miles, by the right bank of the Shkumbî to Rogozhinë west of Peqin where it joins the road from Durazzo by Kavajë to Valona; (3) direct track south-west by Bejlik and Ura e Hasan Beut where it joins the motor-road from Berat to Valona; (4) track south-east by Bejlik up the Devoll valley to Libonik on the Korçë-Pogradec motor-road, for Korçë; (5) track east by the Shkumbî gorge to Librazhd: thence (a) up the Shkumbî to Qukës for Lin, Struga, and Ohrid, following the Roman *Via Egnatia*: used by Serbs 1914; (b) north-east over the Çermenikë and Gollobordë plateaux to Debar.

FIER. Lat. $40^{\circ} 43' N.$, long. $19^{\circ} 34' E.$ Alt. 50 ft. Pop. 1,450 (1939); Moslem and Orthodox. Hotel Lirija.

Centre of a sub-prefecture, almost rebuilt and a prosperous and important market town, Fier lies on the Gjanicë tributary of the Seman, 12 miles west-south-west of Port Seman (Skele e Semanit) and 2 miles south of the Seman, where it is crossed by the motor-road from Valona (18 miles) to Lushnje and Durazzo. The alluvial plain from Roskovec to the coast is interrupted only by low hills north of the Seman, but contains much marsh. Water-supply is now from artesian wells. Oil was found here by the Italians in 1919 and extracted between 1922 and 1931 by the Anglo-Persian Oil Company. At Pojan between Fier and the coast is the classical site of Apollonia, founded by Corinth 588 B.C. but superseded by Avlon (Valona) and Oricum.

Communications. Highway from Valona (18 miles) to Durazzo Tirana and Elbasan crosses the Seman river here: there is a road to Port Seman custom-house on coast (12 miles); road by Ballsh to Tepelenë for Gjinokastër, Korçë, and Yannina; road by Poshnjë and Ura e Hasan Beut to Berat (26 miles).

FRASHËR. Lat. $40^{\circ} 22' N.$, long. $20^{\circ} 27' E.$ Alt. 2,400 ft. Pop. 302; Moslem and Orthodox.

Frashër lies in the northern headwater of the Lengaricë tributary of the Vijosë north of Kokojka, in a pass (Q. e Dëllenjës) into the

upper Osum valley. Many of the inhabitants are Vlachs, called here *Frashërot*.

Communications. On the road from Përmet to Korçë.

GJINOKASTËR (*loc.* Gjirokastër; *class.* Amantia; *Gk.* Argyrokastro). Lat. 40° 4' N., long. 20° 8' E. Alt. 1,150 ft. Pop. 12,000 (1916); 10,836 (1930).

The capital of Gjinokastër prefecture lies in a deep valley on the left bank of the Dhrino river, a tributary of the Vijosë; about 15 miles from the Greek frontier at Kakavi (*Gk.* Kakavia) on the road to Yannina. It is a chief centre of the Liab tribe of Tosks, and of the Bektashi sect, and was formerly of importance for its castle commanding the Dhrino valley. The town stands on three ridges, separated by deep ravines; in distant view a pyramid of white houses against the mountain sides. The older houses are stone-built, large, isolated, and fortified, occupied by the *bey* nobility of the province who own the farms in the plain. Early in the nineteenth century the district had 80,000 inhabitants in 100 villages. There has been long a considerable Greek community here, as well as many Vlachs. There are two Greek churches, several mosques, a ruined castle of Ali Pasha, an older fort, well-furnished bazaar, snuff factory, and the remains of a Roman aqueduct with two tiers of arches. The Deropoli plain (*Alb.* Dropull) is irrigated and fertile, chiefly in wheat and maize. A small Greek city was at Elaeus; the Byzantine centre of this district was Drynopolis, a few miles down-stream, on the site of an older Hadrianopolis. Gjinokastër was fortified by Gjin (John) Bua Spata in the fourteenth century, and taken by Ali Pasha in 1811. It was the temporary capital of the Albanian League of 1879 and 1914, a principal centre of the Bektashis, and has a large Greek settlement. The 'provisional government of autonomous Epirus' was established here in 1922 but did not last.

Water-supply. Very poor in summer. The houses have cisterns. An aqueduct has been planned.

Communications. Highroad by Kakavi to Yannina; to Tepelenë (20 miles) for Valona, Berat, and Elbasan. Tracks by the Suhë and Vijosë valleys to Leskovik for Korçë.

HIMARË (*class.* Oricum; *Gk.* Chimarra 'ravine'). Lat. 40° 07' N., long. 19° 44' E. Alt. 750 ft. Pop. 2,000; Orthodox. Centre of sub-prefecture.

This is a district named from its principal township, but includes

all the seaward slope of M. i Çikës from the Llogora pass to Port Palermo. The second village is Vuno (*Gk.* 'the hill') in a strong position $2\frac{1}{2}$ miles west of Himarë, at the head of a ravine; Dhërm (*Gk.* Drymades 'oak woods'; pop. 1,800) is well built in a strong position on the edge of a gorge. Palasë (*class.* Palaeste), farther west, is at the foot of the descent from the Llogora pass with citron plantations and a girls' school. Himarë village crowns a precipitous spur, overlooking a deep ravine to the west and north. It is surrounded by olives, with fertile patches near the sea. Modern houses along the highroad now reach the shore, where the lower town has a hotel. Fishing and pasturage are practised in common.

History. There were early Greek settlers here from Corcyra (Corfu) and small cities among many native tribes. Philip V of Macedon attacked the district in 214 B.C., and the Romans passed this way on their return from their Macedonian war (167 B.C.). In the ninth century it had a bishop; in the tenth it was taken by the Bulgarians. The Turks occupied it after brave resistance, but in 1570 were expelled for a while with Venetian help. In 1810 it was taken by Ali Pasha, and again in 1816-1817: it was then a group of little republics, very prosperous, under the Pasha of Valona, with 'very severe laws', blood feuds, stone houses, and sixty-two churches. The population includes Greeks and Italians, and many English-speaking Albanians from U.S.A.

Motor-road to Valona (44 miles) and to Sarandë (30 miles).

KANINË (*class.* Chaonia). Lat. $40^{\circ} 26' N.$, long. $19^{\circ} 31' E.$ Alt. 1,240 ft. Pop. 1,203.

Kaninë lies on the northern foothills of M. i Çikës about 2 miles from the east shore of Valona bay and 3 miles south-east of Valona. There are ruins of Serbian, Norman, Angevin, Ballsha (Topia), and Turkish periods. The Turks took it in 1417 and again in 1690.

The light railway from the coast runs through Kaninë to Selenicë (15 miles).

KARDHIQ (*class.* Phanote; *Gk.* Gardiki). Lat. $40^{\circ} 08' N.$, long. $20^{\circ} 02' E.$ Alt. 1,000 ft.

Kardhiq was built by Sultan Bayazid II on a conical hill commanding an enclosed valley west of the Vijosë, 7 miles north-west of Gjino-kastër. It became very prosperous, but after brief independence it was devastated in 1818 by Ali Pasha.



123. *Lesh: view WSW. from M. i Shelbumit*



124. *Lesh: view NE. from Scutari road*



125. *Pogradec and Lake Ochrida. View north towards Lin peninsula*



126. *Peshkopi*

KAVAJË. Lat. $41^{\circ} 11' N.$, long. $19^{\circ} 33' E.$ Alt. 100 ft. Pop. 7,000 (1939); Moslem and Orthodox. Market, Saturday.

Kavajë lies on the Leshniqe stream in the fertile coast-plain 12 miles south-east of Durazzo and 4 miles from the sea. Here the American Near East Foundation had its experimental and agricultural school (*c.* 100 pupils) and a domestic-science boarding-school for girls, but these have been refounded at Mal i Robit 8 miles north. There are potteries which perpetuate classical forms of vessels. Produce is plentiful and there is ample water from wells and irrigation channels.

Communications. Motor-road north to Durazzo and to Tirana, and south to Rrogozhinë (12 miles) for Lushnje, Fier, and Valona, and for Elbasan.

KËLCYRË (*class.* Fauces Antigoneses; *Gk.* Klisoura 'gorge'). Lat. $40^{\circ} 19' N.$, long. $20^{\circ} 12' E.$ Alt. 650 ft. Pop. 420; Moslem.

Këlcyrë lies on a spur of Trebeshin at the junction of the Zall i Deshnicës with the Vjosë, commanding the gorge Grykë e Këlcyrës through the Trebeshin–Dhëmbel range, from which it has its name. Here in 198 B.C. the Romans under T. Quinctius Flaminus forced their way into Thessaly to defeat Philip V of Macedon at Cynoscephalae. The medieval castle was rebuilt by Ali Pasha (1796) and destroyed by Epirote raiders in 1914.

Communications. Motor-road from Tepelenë to Përmet for Korçë and for Yannina; track by Deshnicë valley to Berat.

KONISPOL. Lat. $39^{\circ} 39' N.$, long. $20^{\circ} 11' E.$ Alt. 1,000 ft. Pop. 1,378 (1939).

A Moslem and Vlach village at the southern boundary of Albania, 2 miles from the Corfu channel: centre of sub-prefecture.

Road to Sarandë (24 miles) and to Delvinë (25 miles).

KORÇË (*class.* Pelium; *Gk.* Koritza; *It.* Corizza; *Turk.* Kōrice). Lat. $40^{\circ} 37' N.$, long. $20^{\circ} 47' E.$ Alt. 2,820 ft. Pop. 10,000 (1916), 26,000 (1943). Principally Albanians and Vlachs, and a few Bulgars and Greeks: about a third were formerly Moslems. Cap. of pre-fecture. Hotel: Pallas. Electric light.

The town lies below a high spur south-east of the fertile plain which sinks north into Lake Maliq and the upper valley of the Devoll.

There are quarries of granite and limestone, and an inferior coal is worked for local use. The town is bleak and cool but healthy, and the water is good and plentiful. The large streets are metalled, the smaller cobbled and clean. There are several flour-mills. The American mission school was a pioneer in Albanian education.

History. In 200 B.C. when a Roman army first crossed the Adriatic, Korçë supplied the needs of the force under Sulpicius.

Korçë was occupied by the Greeks on 6 December 1912, surrendered to the Boundary Commissioners but retaken 10 July 1914. In 1915 the French from Salonika established an independent Albanian 'republic of Koritza', which issued paper currency. The French retired 21 June 1920. In 1929 the inhabitants desired the return of Prince Wilhelm of Wied. There were formerly industries of furniture, carpet weaving, local costume, and snuff. It is still an important political, cultural, and commercial centre. There is a medieval castle, a church of A.D. 898 rebuilt 1391, and a mosque of 1481.

Communications. (1) Highroad to Monastir passing west of Lake Prespa by Goricë with a branch to Ohrid: highroad by Bilisht to Kastoria; (2) to Mesogephyra Han (*Gk.* 'middle bridge') near Melisopetra on the Greek frontier and for Yannina, Sarandë (by Delvinë); Përmet for Gjinokastër, Tepelenë, and Valona, and for Berat; (3) to Berat direct; (4) to Elbasan by the Devoll valley.

KRUJË (*med. and It. Croia*). Lat. 41° 31' N., long. 19° 48' E. Alt. 2,000 ft. Pop. 4,835 (1930), 4,500 (1938); Moslem. Centre of sub-prefecture.

The town lies around the foot of the precipitous Castle rock (2,000 ft.), a spur of the steep Krujë range. The bazaar is on the north side. The scattered houses are of stone with red tile roofs and wide eaves, surrounded by fruit-trees and cypresses. To south and west is the fertile plain of the Ishm river, of which the L. i Zezës tributary issues from the mountains 2 miles south of the town.

History. Krujë was the home and capital of Skanderbeg, but was sold by his successor to Venice (1474) and by Venice to Mohammed II (1478).

Communications. The motor-road north from Tirana to Lesh and Scutari passes about 4 miles west. The town is connected with it by a new road (1937) which is continued across the Mat basin to Burrel.

KUKËS (*class.* Gubuleum). Lat. $42^{\circ} 06' N.$, long. $20^{\circ} 24' E.$ Alt. 1,200 ft. Pop. 2,000 (1939). Aerodrome.

The centre of Kosovo prefecture (i.e. the three Albanian sub-prefectures of the former Kosovo province annexed by Serbia 1913), but its municipality was abolished by the Italians in February 1943. The town lies at the confluence of the Black and White Drin, with three bridges over the Black Drin and two over the combined stream. There is ample water from the rivers and from springs.

Road from Scutari by Pukë, continued along left bank of the White Drin to Yugoslav frontier for Đakovica and Prizren. Roads southward to Peshkopi: (a) west of the Drin by Surroj, crossing at Shkavec; (b) on the right bank as far as Bicaj, continued by track through Ploshtan.

LESH (*class.* Lissus, *It.* Alessio). Lat. $41^{\circ} 47' N.$, long. $19^{\circ} 39' E.$ Alt. 75 ft. Pop. 1637. Telegraph.

The town is irregularly built along the left bank of the Drin, 6 miles from its mouth and 4 miles from Shëngjin (San Giovanni di Medua) on the coast. Above the town is an abrupt bare hill, M. e Shelbunit ('Mount of the Ascension'), with ruins of ancient Lissus. The Drin is navigable by boat to its mouth from Lesh, which was a port before the main flow was diverted into the Boyana.

History. Lissus, an old Illyrian settlement with a reputation for piracy, was taken and colonized by Dionysius of Syracuse (385 B.C.), besieged by Philip V of Macedon (213), and defended by Rome. It was rebuilt by Julius Caesar after his campaign of 48 B.C. From 1391 to 1449 it was a fortress of the Serbs; passed later to Venice (1493), was burnt by the Turks (1498), and was held and refortified by Selim I (1512–1520). The Venetian–Turkish castle is about 1,300 yards from old Lissus. In the Franciscan monastery of St. Nicolas (Shënkollë), Skanderbeg was buried in 1468.

Communications. Lesh is on the motor-road from Tirana (50 miles) to Scutari (25 miles). A bypass through Q. e Shparës connects with the Mat valley routes at Bulqizë.

LIBOHOVË. Lat. $40^{\circ} 02' N.$, long. $20^{\circ} 16' E.$ Alt. 1,850 ft. Pop. 2,593 (1939); Moslem and Orthodox. Centre of sub-prefecture.

Libohovë is on the slopes of Bureto, south-east of Gjinokastër across the Dhrino valley. It commands the whole valley, and the villages at the foot of Mal i gjerë beyond it.

LUSHNJË (*class.* Marusium). Lat. $40^{\circ} 56' N.$, long. $19^{\circ} 43' E.$ Alt. 90 ft. Pop. 4,000. Centre of sub-prefecture. Hotels: Europe, Lirija. Market, Monday.

Lushnje lies on the motor-road between Valona (40 miles) and Durazzo (35 miles) on the east margin of the coast plain and Knetë e Tërbufit and 9 miles south of the Shkumbî river. It has a government agricultural school and nursery for fruit-trees. The water supply is now from artesian wells. The Albanian Congress met here in 1920 (p. 192).

OHRID (*class.* AChris; Lychnis; *Gk.* Ochrida) in Yugoslavia. Lat. $41^{\circ} 07' N.$, long. $20^{\circ} 47' E.$ Alt. 2,264 ft. (lake-level). Pop. 10,000–15,000 (1916).

The town is on the north-east shore of Lake Ochrida, in a small alluvial plain surrounded by hills, on rocky southward spurs, among gardens and orchards. On one summit are the cathedral of St. Clement (with an Orthodox archbishop) and the palace of the Bulgarian bishop; on another the citadel, with ruined wall, bastions, and towers. To the north are the bazaars, along the road to Monastir; to the south the Christian quarter, mainly Bulgarian, overlooking the lake. The climate is healthy, and supplies are plentiful, especially flour. Industries are tanning, fishing, and trade in furs, and there is a market for agricultural produce.

Communications. Railway from Struga to Tetovo and so to the main Balkan railways. Roads by Struga to Debar, and by Lin for Elbasan and Korçë. Boats ply to Pogradec.

Lake Ochrida is 19 miles long, 9 wide; 938 feet greatest depth: it is fed from Lake Prespa underground, near Sveti Naum, and drains at the north end into the Black Drin. It contains excellent fish, especially large trout. Rowing-boats 18–20 feet long, flat-bottomed, with high prow and wide stern, ply between Ohrid and Pogradec at the south-west end of the lake, with four rowers on the port side and steersmen with oar on the starboard side of the stern.

PEQIN (*class.* Clodiana). Lat. $41^{\circ} 03' N.$, long. $19^{\circ} 45' E.$ Alt. 164 ft. Pop. 1,563; mostly Moslems.

A rambling agricultural village on the road from Durazzo (27 miles) to Elbasan (25 miles). It overlooks the right bank of the Shkumbî river, and is malarious.



127. *Sarandë: view west by north over the bay and town*



128. *Shëngjin: looking WSW. across the harbour*



129. *Scutari: view NNE. across the Boyana. Modern city left centre, and Rozafat on extreme right*



130. *Scutari: the landing stage, and Rozafat fort*

PËRMET. Lat. $40^{\circ} 14' N.$, long. $20^{\circ} 21' E.$ Alt. 950 ft. Pop. 2,788 (1939). Moslem and Orthodox. Centre of sub-prefecture. Telegraph to Valona.

A clean well-built town, busy and commercial, with old stone bridge fortress of Ali Pasha, three mosques, three churches, Moslem and Christian schools. It lies on the left bank of the upper Vjosë, which flows in a deep channel at the foot of Dhëmbel with cornfields and pastures.

Communications. Road from Tepelenë by Këlcyrë ($11\frac{3}{4}$ miles) to the Greek frontier (20 miles) for Yannina ($56\frac{1}{2}$ miles). Road north-east by Frashër and Qafëzezi to the Perat-Korçë frontier-road.

PESHKOPI. Lat. $41^{\circ} 41' N.$, long. $20^{\circ} 26' E.$ Alt. 2,050 ft. Pop. 1,000 (1936), 893 (1939). Cap. of Dibra prefecture.

Debar town being in Yugoslavia since 1926, Peshkopi has taken its place as economic centre of the district east of the Drin. Produce is ample, and there is enough water from springs.

It suffered from an earthquake in 1942.

Communications. (1) By Shëpenzë to Korçë-Pogradec-Elbasan road at Librazhd; (2) to Debar; (3) by Bicaj (E. of Drin) or (4) by Surroj (W. of Drin), to Kukës.

POGRADEC. Lat. $40^{\circ} 54' N.$, long. $20^{\circ} 39' E.$ Alt. 2,300 ft. Pop. 2,527 (1939); Moslem and Orthodox. Centre of sub-prefecture.

Pogradec is situated at the south-west corner of Lake Ochrida in a fruit-growing district, with healthy climate.

Communications. Main road by Lin along lake shore to Ohrid and Drin valley; south to Korçë for Gjinokastër, Valona, and for Yannina; south-east by Bilisht for Monastir (Bitolj); west by Lin and Qukës to Elbasan.

PUKË. Lat. $42^{\circ} 03' N.$, long. $19^{\circ} 54' E.$ Alt. 2,300 ft. Pop. 445 (1939); Moslem. Centre of sub-prefecture.

Communications. Highroad from Scutari to Kukës for Prizren; by-road to copper mine at Narel. Road by Qerret to Bushat and Dushman in the Drin gorge.

QUKËS (*class.* Tres Tabernae). Lat. $41^{\circ} 05' N.$, long. $20^{\circ} 26' E.$ Alt. 1,900 ft. Pop. 646 (1939).

Qukës lies in a small grassy basin on the road from Elbasan (25

miles) to Lin (11 miles), where it leaves the right bank of the Shkumbi for the shallow Lingajçë ravine up to the summit plain Fushë e Kododeshit and the Qafë e Thanës pass. As the ancient name shows, this was a halt on the Roman *Via Egnatia*. The population is mixed and of ill repute, with many Vlachs.

SARANDË (*It.* Santi Quaranta), *see* 'Ports'.

SCUTARI (*class.* Scodra, *Alb.* Shkodër). Lat. 42° 03' N., long. 19° 31' E. Alt. 20 ft., but liable to floods. Pop. 24,000 (1927), 30,000 (1939). Telegraph and telephone. Hotels: Grand, Penzione Romana. Markets: old town, Wednesdays; new town, Mondays.

Scutari lies 2-3 miles from the south-east shore of its lake, on the slope of a hill on which is the medieval fort. The bazaar-quarter, 1½ miles towards the bridge over the Boyana river, is liable to floods and unhealthy; but the richer houses and famous gardens farther east lie higher and are pleasant, with much cultivation of tree-fruits and vegetables. The water-supply, from wells, is excellent. There is a small saltpetre factory.

History. The ancient kingdom of Scodra had ill repute for piracy till it was suppressed by the Romans. Thereafter it remained a principal town of the region, with a bishopric. The Old Town lies at the head of the Boyana river, issuing from the lake. The *Xhami e Plumbit* ('Leaden Mosque', *Turk.* cami) was formerly the church of S. Mark. In 1473 Scutari was attacked by Suleiman Pasha, who lost 14,000 men out of 80,000 by wounds and malaria, and was repulsed by Antonio Lauretano with Venetian and Hungarian help. In 1478 Mehmed Pasha brought 250,000 men and lost 30,000, but after long blockade captured it in January 1479. In the eighteenth century Scutari became the capital of the Bushati family, who united northern Albania and whose head was recognized as 'Hereditary Pasha'. They took Dulcigno (Ulcinj) and suppressed its pirates, defeated Kurt Pasha of Berat, the Montenegrins (1785), and Ali Pasha of Janina, and became Catholic to secure Austrian help; but the last Bushati was killed on a visit to Cetinje (1786). From 25 October 1912 to 23 April 1913 Scutari was besieged by Montenegrins and Serbs and defended by Hussein Riza Bey till he was assassinated by Essad Pasha, who surrendered the town. Till July 1914 it was occupied by an international naval brigade under Sir Cecil Burney. On 27 June 1915 the Serbs reoccupied it, followed by the Austrians (23 Jan. 1916)

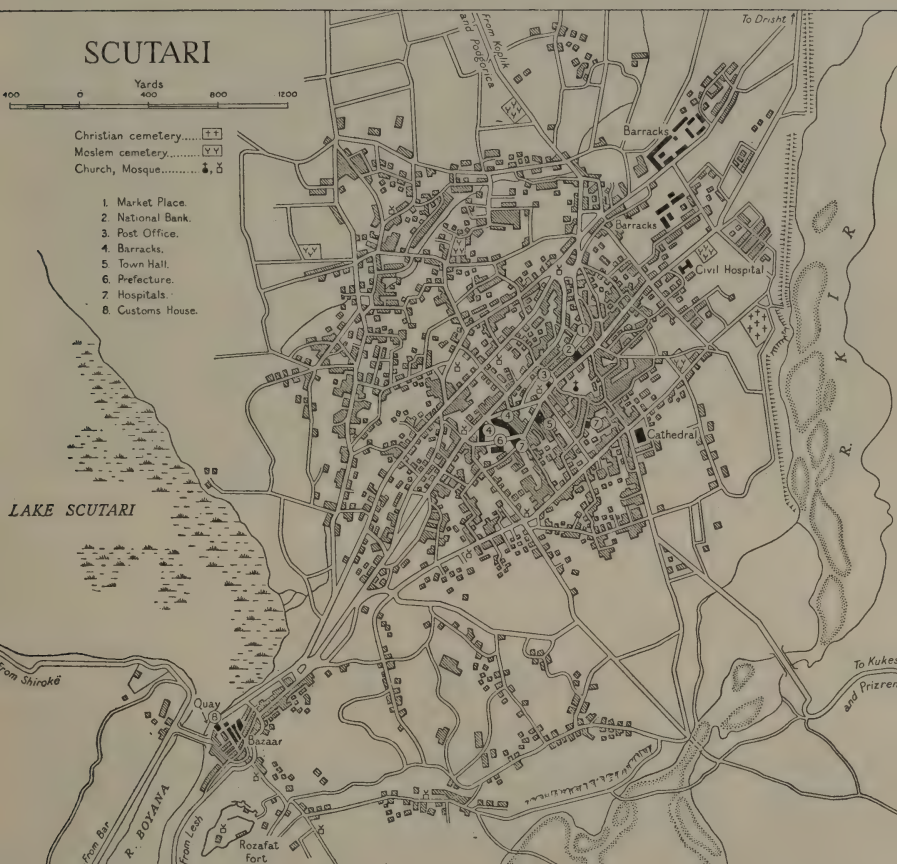


FIG. 51. Plan of Scutari

and the French and Italians (from Nov. 1918 till Mar. 1920), and by the Italians alone till the Albanian Regency was established (p. 208).

Communications. Motor-road south to Lesh (25 miles) for Tirana and Durazzo and north for Podgorica; railway from Virpazar north-west of the lake to Bar with quay on the lake, warehouse, and 3-ton crane. The approach from the lake has been improved. Across the Boyana bridge roads lead east to Zogaj on Lake Scutari (6 miles), and along the foothills to Goricë, for Ulcinj and for Stari Bar and Bar, whence there is a railway to Virpazar.

SELENICË. Lat. $40^{\circ} 32' N.$, long. $19^{\circ} 39' E.$ Alt. 890 ft.

The town lies on the northernmost spur of M. i. Treblovës overlooking the Vijosë valley about 9 miles north-east of Valona. In antiquity its hot springs, emitting inflammable gas, gave fame to an oracle. Recently asphalt has been extracted in considerable quantities, by Ismail Kemal Vlora (1868), a French company (1875), an Italian company (1923)—and is sent to the coast at Valona for export, mainly to Italy. Oil also is found in the neighbourhood. The town was occupied by the Romans, the Venetians, and Ali Pasha, but has no notable remains.

The water-supply is good.

Communications. Decauville railway by Armen and Peshkep to Valona.

SHËNGJIN (S. Giovanni di Medua), *see* 'Ports'.

STRUGA (*class.* Patoae; in Yugoslavia, 5 miles east of the Albanian frontier). Lat. $41^{\circ} 10' N.$, long. $20^{\circ} 40' E.$ Alt. 2,300 ft. Pop. 6,000 (1916); half Moslem, half Christian.

The town lies among peat-mosses on the north shore of Lake Ochrida, 8 miles north-west of Ohrid town, on the left bank of the Black Drin, which is unfordable where it leaves the lake, but has a bridge. The inhabitants fish for trout and eels, for which there is considerable demand.

Communications. Motor-road to Ohrid, for Monastir (Bitolj); road along left bank of the Drin to Debar. Main road by lake-shore to Lin for Pogradec and Korçë, and direct by Qafë e Thanës to Qukës for Elbasan. Railways: east to Ohrid for Tetovo and the main Balkan railways, west and north for a local service to Velešte.



131. *Tirana: looking northwards from the air*



132. *Tirana: looking west from the roof of the Prefecture*



133. *Valona: looking NNW. over the city*



134. *Valona: view SSW. over city and bay*

TEPELENË (*class.* Antigonía). Lat. $40^{\circ} 17' N.$, long. $20^{\circ} 01' E.$ Alt. 639 ft.; 400 ft. (river); 1,000 ft. (fort). Pop. 1,000 (1903); majority Moslem, some Orthodox, including Vlachs. Many residents have returned from U.S.A.

Tepelenë lies on the left bank of the Vijosë river, about $1\frac{1}{2}$ miles below its junction with the Dhrino river, on a rocky point (1,000 ft.) between the main stream and the Bençë torrent out of Kurvelesh i sipërm on the left bank. The valley is enclosed between high spurs and plateaux of Griba and Shëndëlli, but opens north-west overlooking the rolling country of Mallakastra and is approached by passes on all sides. Above the town is the large fortress, rebuilt by Ali Pasha. The rivers are deeply cut into the valley floor, with steep banks. The town suffered much from earthquake in 1920, but has been recovering. An older bridge was restored by Ali Pasha, but has been destroyed again and replaced by a ferry.

Communications. Motor-road north-west to Valona (40 miles); south-east to Gjinokastër (20 miles) for Yannina; east, by the Vijosë valley, to Përmet and Perat and thence north to Korçë.

TIRANA (Tiranë). Lat. $41^{\circ} 19' N.$, long. $19^{\circ} 49' E.$ Alt. 500 ft. Pop. 12,000 (1916), 31,000 (1930), 35,000 (1939). Capital of the kingdom. Barracks. Airfield. Bank; orphanage; high schools; hospitals; prison. Hotels: Continental, International, Metropole, London. Radio.

The city lies at the head of the open lowland basin of the Ishm river, between the Tiranë and Lanë tributaries which issue from gorges in M. i Dajtit 5 miles eastward. Beyond an open watershed to the south is a northern tributary of the Erzen river rising in the same range. The Tertiary sands and marls are fertile, and the Ishm alluvium more so; water is copious, and open streams flow down the middle of the cobbled streets in the old town; an aqueduct has been planned. The valley yields maize and wheat, and has many olives and vines, and the abrupt range to eastward has forests and good pasture. Farther north the lower valley is swampy with meadow, pasture, and woodland. At Mamuras are hot springs.

The town, with many trees and gardens, surrounds the ancient fortress, built by Justinian (c. A.D. 520) and restored in the eighteenth century by Ahmed Pasha Toptani. In front of the fort an old Turkish house serves as palace, and there is an old mosque with minaret and mural paintings. Though the town has been remodelled on an Italian

plan with many government buildings, much of the old bazaar-quarter remains. Beyond the Lanë stream, which has a Venetian bridge but is nearly dry in summer, is the large gipsy quarter, which makes baskets and ropes, sells horses, and tells fortunes.

Communications. Motor-roads (1) to Durazzo by Vorrë and a pass through low hills to cross the Erzen at Shijak; (2) 'auto strada' speed-road by the Erzen valley to join the southward coast road 5 miles from Durazzo; (3) to Lesh and Scutari leaving the Durazzo road (No. 1) at Vorrë and recrossing the plain to the L. i Zezës below Krujë, thence at the foot of the Krujë range, with the modern Ura e Zogut bridge (1937) over the Mat river; (4) southward by Petrelë (5 miles) over Krrabë to Elbasan (25 miles). Track east over M. i Dajtit to the upper Erzen, thence by Shëngjergj, Klos, and the Bulqizë valley to Shëpenzë for Debar or Peshkopi.

SASENO and VALONA: *see* 'Ports'.

VOSKOPOJË (*Gk.* Moskhopolis 'calf-city'). Lat. 40° 38' N., long. 20° 36' E. Alt. 4,100 ft. Pop. 397, Orthodox.

Voskopojë lies in the headwaters of a left-bank tributary of the Devoll, 9 miles west of Korçë. In the eighteenth and early nineteenth centuries it was a centre of culture, with a printing press for Albanian books and classical texts: but it was devastated by Ali Pasha, and has now a considerable settlement of Vlachs.

CHAPTER XIII

COMMUNICATIONS

General

THE remoteness of Albania has been intoned in each successive chapter. The fact that politically and culturally it has remained a backwater is largely explained by the fact that no important highways save one—the Via Egnatia—have led across it, and that only so long as Imperial Rome held sway to the east as well as to the west. The Adriatic has carried the intercourse and commerce of the nations from north to south more easily than any road over Albanian rivers, swamps, and mountains could have done. After the fall of Rome the jealousies of neighbouring peoples have largely prevented any traffic from east to west. Turkey alone was in a position to organize it, and to Turkey are due the few old bridges on the ill-kept inland roads, but Turkey was in no position to protect trade sea-borne from Albanian harbours, and was little interested therefore in communications to them. Until the oilfields of Albania were discovered no raw products called for exploitation, whilst the needs of a population, sectionally self-sufficient save for the few commodities obtainable at her ports, called for no elaborate transportation. The ages of coach roads, of macadam, and of railways passed her for long unheeded, whilst none of her rivers offer facility for inland water transport.

The liberation of the Balkans from Turkish rule, the Great War of 1914–1918, and the Italian occupation have begun to alter the situation. Italian-made roads, and maps, will be useful in the future; the gendarmerie, under British command, has contributed largely to the telephone service; but a vigorous and centralized government will have much to do before communications are rapid and convenient.

I. ROADS

Foot- and bridle-paths

There were no doubt early tracks or foot-paths between tribal areas and between fishing-villages and inland settlements; and the native 'kingdoms' of classical times had their centres at road junctions such as Scodra and Lissus.

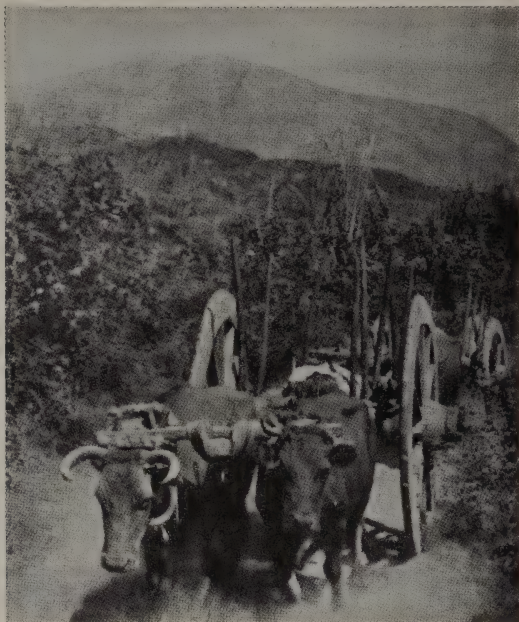
In the fifth century B.C. Herodotus (iv. 33) describes intertribal trade from the head of the Adriatic, which passed into Greek hands at Dodona near Yannina, and therefore traversed the Albanian low-



135. Ford: Shkumbî gorge west of Mirakë, looking upstream: Mirakë bridge on extreme left



136. Ferry over the Drin at Vau i Spasit, 9 miles NW. of Kukës: looking south



137. *Bullock wagons with uprights to confine the load*



138. *Bullock wagon loaded with brush-wood on the Scutari-Koplik road*

land by Scutari, Tirana, and Berat or Tepelenë; but he gives no details of its course.

Thucydides tells how Themistocles, exiled from Athens, took refuge among the Molossians about 466 B.C. and was given safe conduct thence through Macedonia to the Aegean.

Many old foot- and bridle-paths still exist, and it is possible to travel from place to place by tracks other than the new highways, and naturally enough to reach places which are not on the main routes. It is in the Northern Highlands that these ancient tracks mainly survive.

The First Highway

The first historical road through Albania is the Roman *Via Egnatia*, built to connect Dyrrhachium (Durazzo) with Thessalonica (Salonica) and transmit Roman armies to the Near East. This road followed and conserved a fundamental boundary between northern and southern tribes, following the Shkumbî (*Genusus*) valley and its eastern headwaters, whence an early pass—Qafë e Thanës—crosses Jablanica (*Candavia*) to Lake Ochrida (*Lychnidus*).

The Present System (Fig. 53)

The present road system, which is still being developed, has grown as much for strategical as for economic reasons, and the strategy has not been of Albania's own choosing.

North-south lines of communication follow the coastal plain on the west, and the Debar-Lake Ochrida-Korçë line on the east. It is athwart the country that difficulties abound, but roads from the Adriatic coast to the eastern boundary and beyond have been constructed, generally on the line of a long-established track, and largely by Italian engineers. Such are the road from Scutari through Pukë and Kukës to Prizren, the roads from Durazzo to Debar, to Lin and Korçë, and to Perat on the Greek frontier.

Road building, in the modern sense, was introduced by Austrians and Italians during the War of 1914-1918. The Italians have continued the work either by providing money and technical help or, since their occupation of the country, by taking over the maintenance and improvement of important roads. The Azienda Strade Albania (A.S.A.) was founded in 1939 for the purpose of developing and maintaining Albanian roads. The Albanians were forced to supply free labour for the enterprise.

The earlier main roads were constructed of stones or river boulders

laid on a roughly prepared foundation, and bound, or filled in, with small stones, earth, or sand. Consolidation depended on the weight of traffic carried by the road, for there was no other machinery available. Roads built in this fashion are often weak in the haunches and traffic tends to move in the centre, often with disastrous effects. If built on a slope a dry stone retaining wall is usually built, but is apt to fail under the impact of heavy traffic, or to be washed away by heavy storms. The more modern practice is to pave the road with selected stones and to surface it with asphalt—Albania itself supplies the bitumen from her own resources. The method of revetment has also been improved now that cement is manufactured in the country.

The Italians claim to have constructed 190 miles of asphalted roads and improved many miles of existing roads within twelve months of their occupation. Recent reports are not flattering, but certainly a substantial mileage, possibly 500, of properly surfaced roads has resulted from four years of Italian work.

The Italian practice is to make roads 8 metres (26 ft. 3 in.) wide overall, and to surface a width of 6 metres (19 ft. 8 in.) leaving a berm of 1 metre (3 ft. 3 in.) on either side for mules and foot-traffic. Thus the carriage-way is wide enough to take two lines of traffic. In what follows such roads will be referred to as 'standard two-way'. The maximum gradient on new roads is supposed to be 1 in 14.3 (7%), and the minimum curve to have a radius of 30 metres (98 ft. 5 in.). But there are many roads which do not conform to these rules; gradients are heavier and curves sharper.

Much attention has been given to the construction of bridges. Whereas in the old days Albanians were content with fords and narrow bridges of wood or stone, bridges of reinforced concrete, or of steel, now span important rivers on main roads. These roads are not always open to traffic; during winter in the mountains snow blocks are frequent, and on the plains floods intervene during spring and autumn.

The Itinerary which follows is not exhaustive, because information for all the minor roads shown on the general map (end pocket) is not available.

Route 1. PODGORICA—SCUTARI: 38 miles.

This is a good two-way road of standard width. From Podgorica to Tuzi it is metalled with no surfacing, but from Tuzi to Scutari it is asphalted. Gradients of 1 in 6 and 1 in 9 are reported. Sharp curves occur at miles $4\frac{3}{4}$, $12\frac{1}{2}$, $17\frac{3}{4}$, and 25.

From Podgorica southward the road is embanked across the marshy Zeta coast plain of Lake Scutari: then it turns east to circumvent the Liqen i Hotit and follows, southward, the steep foothills of the Malsi e madhe highland, diverging towards the lake-shore near Scutari. The road divides 3 km. from Scutari, and enters the town by different streets.

Itinerary

<i>Distance in miles</i>		<i>Height in feet</i>	<i>Route</i>	<i>Distance in kilometres</i>	
0	38	138	PODGORICA.	0	61·0
4½	33¾	..	Bridge over Cijevna.	7·4	53·6
6½	31½	..	TUZI.	10·2	50·8
12¾	25¼	..	Bridge over arm of Liqen i Hotit.	20·0	41·0
16¾	21½	72	Frontier.	26·6	34·4
17¾	20¼	..	Bridge over arm of Liqen i Hotit.	28·3	32·7
22	16	210	IVANAJ.	35·4	25·6
25	13	249	Bridge over Prroni i thatë.	40·2	20·8
27½	10¾	164	KOPLIK I POSHTËM. Route 2 junction.	43·6	17·4
28	10	151	Bridge over Prroni i Banushit.	45·1	15·9
30½	7¾	89	Bridge over Rrjoll.	48·5	12·5
34	4	..	HAN I VRAKËS. Bridge.	54·6	6·4
38	0	44	SCUTARI.	61·0	0

Route 2. KOPLIK I POSHTËM—OKOL: 32 miles.

This is little more than a mountain track which connects the wild country of the North Albanian Alps with Scutari. Administratively an important road, economically it is of less importance. It is narrow but sufficiently wide to take one-way traffic. It has a loose stone surface as far as Bogë. Thereafter it degenerates. Sometimes a mere ledge blasted on the mountain side, elsewhere it is heavily embanked. A new road was being built in August 1938. The road is blocked in winter by snow drifts, especially between Bogë and Okol. Details of bridges and gradients are wanting, but there are many bridges (probably of wood) and gradients are severe. A difficult extension into Yugoslavia, following an old bridle-track, was proposed but apparently has not been made. Touring-cars and perhaps buses have been as far as Bogë.

The road leaves Route 1 at Koplik i poshtëm (Lower Koplik) and follows a north-easterly direction, traversing the narrow gorge of the Prroni i thatë as far as Ducaj (mile 14–15). At Ducaj it turns north still following the Prroni i thatë as far as Bogë. Thereafter it winds its way up mountain slopes to a pass at Qafë e Thores (6,000 ft.),

from which it descends abruptly to the valley of Lum i Shalës. A bridle-track continues over Q. e Pejës (5,600 ft.) to Gusinje.

Itinerary

Distance in miles		Height in feet	Route	Distance in kilometres	
0	32	164	KOPLIK I POSHTËM (Lower Koplik). 10 $\frac{3}{4}$ miles from Scutari.	0	52.0
2	30	446	KOPLIK I SIPËRM (Upper Koplik).	3.3	48.7
7	25	..	Road enters narrow valley of Prroni i thatë.	11.4	40.6
14	18	2,550 (approx.)	DUCAJ.	23.2	28.8
21	11	3,075	BOGË.	33.2	18.8
27	5	5,020 (?6,000)	Summit of Qafë e Thores.	44.0	8.0
32	0	3,090	OKOL.	52.0	0

Route 3. SCUTARI-ZOGAJ: 10 miles.

This road follows the foot of the mountains which fringe the southern edge of Lake Scutari. Zogaj is an Albanian frontier post. The road is reported to be wide enough for two-way traffic at least as far as Shirokë (3 miles) and to have a metalled surface.

Route 4. SCUTARI-BAR: 33 miles.

The road is embanked near the Boyana river and is probably all weather. From Scutari to Muriqan (10 $\frac{1}{2}$ miles) it is standard two-way. Beyond Muriqan, though still two-way, the surface is of loose metal. The steepest gradient is 1 in 15, but the last section, miles 14-30, is winding with sharp curves. The bridge at mile 2 is 541 feet long and is of steel girders carried on seven masonry piers. The first span swings to allow river craft to pass. At 6 miles is a second bridge, 70 feet long, of concrete and steel girder, over the Garucë—a tributary of the Boyana. At the river Bar, 30 miles, is an old Venetian arched bridge, rebuilt later by the Turks.

At 25 miles a side-road leads southwards to Ulcinj.

Itinerary

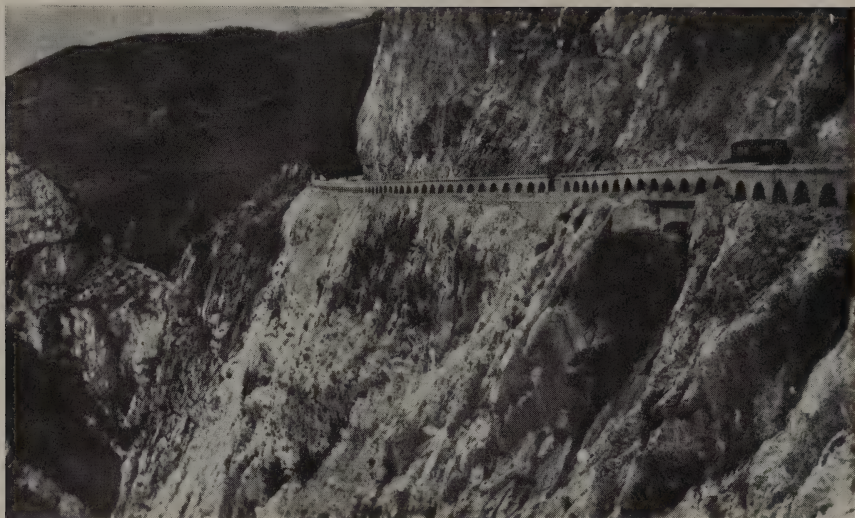
Distance in miles		Height in feet	Route	Distance in kilometres	
0	33	43	SCUTARI.	0	53.0
2	31	..	Bridge over Boyana.	3.3	49.7
6 $\frac{1}{4}$	26 $\frac{1}{4}$	..	Bridge over Garucë river.	10.5	42.5



139. *Turkish paved road, and open drain, at the arched gateway of Eltasan, looking north*



140. *Unpaved road with kerb: Libonik village on south shore of Lake Maliq: note roofs of red tile and thatch*



141. *Highway rock-cut in the Drojë gorge between Krujë and Burrel.*



142. *Tunnel on the Valona-Sarandë road at Korikosso Point $\frac{1}{4}$ mile north of Krionero*

Distance in miles		Height in feet	Route	Distance in kilometres	
11½	21½	..	MURIQAN: Albanian Frontier Post.	18·0	35·0
11½	21½	80	SAKUBIN: Yugoslav Frontier Post.	19·0	34·0
		(approx.)			
18½	14½	450	KRUTA.	30·0	23·0
		(approx.)			
25	8	..	Side-road leads south to Ulcinj.	41·0	12·0
26½	6½	650	DOBRA VODA. Several bridges.	43·0	10·0
		(approx.)			
30	3	..	Old bridge over Bar river (3 arches in brick).	48·0	5·0
32	1	..	Road junction to BUDVA.	51·0	2·0
33	0	..	BAR.	53·0	0

Route 5. SCUTARI-PUKË-KUKËS-FRONTIER-PRIZREN: 109 miles.

That a comparatively good road has been constructed is certain, but there is uncertainty as to its exact trace and confusion concerning the distances along it. In part it seems to follow earlier tracks, in part it is entirely new. From Scutari to Pukë the road is new and standard two-way. Leaving Scutari south-eastwards it follows the contours of the foothills of the Albanian Alps, in order to avoid the flood plains of the Kir and the Drin. It crosses the Drin by a new bridge over the Va i Dêjës. The Drin valley might seem to be a natural east-and-west line of communication, but the river has cut a gorge through the Albanian Alps so deep and narrow that it forbids road construction. From Va i Dêjës bridge the road crosses the narrow northern tip of the Zadrimë plain and enters the mountains by the Gomsiqe gorge. The latest maps place the road wholly on the south or left bank of the river. The river is crossed by an arched concrete bridge 26 miles from Scutari. Traversing the upper slopes of the gorge of the Gomsiqe, it turns north and rises to cross the open valley of Pukë.

The Austrians in 1914-1918 improved an Albanian track which linked Scutari with Pukë. It is probable that this track diverged from the road described above on the Zadrimë plain, kept to right (northern) bank of Gomsiqe, and entered Pukë from the north. This track is not practicable for heavy vehicles but may still be used for pack transport.

From Pukë onwards the road is double track, but it is doubtful whether it has been asphalted. It runs high through difficult country with sharp bends round the heads of ravines and gulleys. It is but a narrow shelf about mile 44, near the village of Rrapë, after which

it winds down to the valley of the Lum i Arstit and crosses several bridges over tributary streams. The Lum i Arstit itself is crossed at mile 53. Rising from the valley the road is steep and winding to Qafë e Malit (3,100 ft.); beyond the pass there are two roads. The original track continues east-north-east to the valley of the Drin, whilst the new motor-road turns abruptly south for 3 or 4 miles, then follows an erratic course eastwards through Vrrith (2,500 ft.) to the Drin, where it is joined by the first track. The road continues along the left (south) bank of the Drin and crosses the Black Drin near its confluence with the White Drin on the outskirts of the small town of Kukës, and then continues on the left bank of the White Drin to the frontier 9-10 miles beyond. There are many small bridges. The more important and longer are over the Kir, Pistall (mile 5), Drin (mile 10), Gomsiqe (mile 23), Drin (mile 71), and Lumë (mile 73). In the winter snow-blocks occur on the passes.

A bus service was run between Scutari and Prizren. The times taken were:

Scutari-Pukë . . .	3 hours
Pukë-Kukës . . .	4 hours 10 min.
Kukës-Prizren . . .	2 hours
	9 hours 10 min.

Itinerary

The distances given below are approximate only.

<i>Distance in miles</i>		<i>Height in feet</i>	<i>Route</i>	<i>Distance in kilometres</i>	
0	98	..	SCUTARI.	0	157·6
1½	96½	44	Bridge over Kir in 2 spans, about 200 feet long.	2·5	155·1
3½	94½	..	RRËNC.	5·9	151·7
5	93	..	Bridge over Pistall 90 feet long.	8·2	149·4
7	91	..	JUBAN. Narrow valley. Road confined between the Drin and slopes of Mal i Jubanit (1,760 ft.).	11·3	146·3
10	88	108	VAU I DËJËS. Bridge over Drin carried by 4 arched spans. Total length 700 feet. Road turns away from the Drin.	16·0	141·6
11½	86½	..	Road junction. Track to LESH.	18·6	139·0
12½	85½	..	GOJAN. Most mountainous sector before Pukë. The road is sometimes 300 feet or more sheer above the river Gomsiqe.	20·0	137·6
21	77	..	KORTHFULË. Road descends into the narrow valley of the Gomsiqe. Many S-turns.	34·0	123·6

Distance in miles		Height in feet	Route	Distance in kilometres	
25½	72½	..	Bridge over river Gomsiqe. Reported to be about 325 feet long with 2 long and 2 short spans. Another report speaks of a single-arch span.	41·3	116·3
27	71	2,250 (approx.)	KÇIRË, on left of road. The track is new. Old road which crosses and recrosses new route impracticable for motor transport.	43·4	114·2
35	63	2,640	PUKË. Branch-road to Narel copper mines to north.	56·0	101·6
43	55	2,600	HAN I RRAPËS.	69·6	88·0
43½	54½	} ..	Very winding descent with hairpin bends into valley and deep narrow gorge of Lum i Arstit.	70·1	87·5
46½	51½			75·2	82·4
47½	50½			76·6	81·0
48½	49½	..	ARST village and bridge, 164 feet long.		
		..	Road traverses hill-side above the Lum i Arstit.	77·9	79·7
49	49	..	HAN I ARSTIT. Bridge 160 feet long.	79·0	78·6
50½	47½	..	3-arched bridge over Prroni i Micojt. Road built into steep slope of gorge.	81·1	76·5
53	45	..	Bridge over the Lum i Arstit.	85·4	72·2
55	43	} ..	Hairpin bends in ascent from gorge of the Lum i Arstit.	88·6	69·0
55½	42½			89·8	67·8
58	40			93·6	64·0
		3,260	Summit of Q. e Malit. Many bends; road cut into mountain side.		
61	37	..	Sharp descent, then hairpin bend.	97·4	60·2
64½	33½	..	Q. e Shllakut.	103·8	53·8
65½	32½	..	VRITH. Hamlet.	105·2	52·4
66-70	28-32	..	Very winding descent with hairpin bends into Serriqe valley.	106-112	45·6-51·6
70½	27½	..	Bridge over river Serriqe.	112·2	45·4
70½	27½	..	Bridge over Prroni i Ruenës on sharp bend.	113·1	44·5
71	27	..	SHËMRI, small village. Steep ascent of Q. e Gjalçit begins.	113·7	43·9
71½-	25½-	..	Hairpin bends.	114-116	41·6-43·6
72½	26½	..			
75½	22½	..	Summit of Q. e Gjalçit. Winding descent into Drin valley begins.	120·9	36·7
79½	18½	..	BARÇORËT.	127·1	30·5
80½	17½	..	Final descent to river Drin. Road cut into hill-side, winds and zig-zags down steep slopes. Hairpin bends.	128·9	28·7
83	15	..	Junction with original track.	132·5	25·0
83	15	..	Bridge over Prroni i Kalimashit.	132·7	24·9
85½	12½	..	KOLSH. Bridge over Neshniqe.	137·7	19·9
87	11	..	Confluence of Black and White Drin.	139·7	17·9

Distance in miles		Height in feet	Route	Distance in kilometres	
88	10	..	Reinforced concrete bridge over Black Drin about 343 feet long, built in 3 spans and 2 approach spans.	141.3	16.3
98	0	840	KUKËS (population 1,000-1,500).		
90½	7½	..	KULAT E LUMËS. Road junction to Bicaj (Route 30). Bridge over L. i Lumës. Road continues in the deep valley of the White Drin.	144.7	12.9
97¾	¼	282	MORINË.	156.3	1.3
98	0	..	Albanian-Yugoslav frontier.	157.6	0

Route 6. SCUTARI-DRISHT-KRUË I FUSHËS: 15½ miles.

Also a highland road, but of better construction than Route 2. It may extend across the mountains to Shëngjergj on the Drin, but this is not certain. In any case there is a track from road head to Shëngjergj. Money was allocated for the improvement and extension of the road in 1942.

The road is standard two-way to Drisht (5¼ miles). It is liable to be flooded by the river Kir over which, at 3¾ miles, there is a bridge. No distance figures are available beyond Kruë i Fushës.

Route 7. SCUTARI-LESH-VORRË-DURAZZO: 81¼ miles.

This is part of the old coast road between Yugoslavia and Greece. It is fairly level and was easy to construct, but flooding is a constant problem in spring and autumn, particularly between Scutari and Lesh. Over this section the road is winding.

The road crosses the Drin i madh, on the outskirts of Scutari, and the fertile plain between that river and the Boyana. At 17 miles the road runs in a narrow corridor between hills (Mal i Kakarriqit) and the Drin, and then opens into marshy country. A new reinforced concrete bridge of the bowstring type spans the Drin at Lesh. Keeping to the eastern edge of the coastal plain, the road crosses the Mat river by a modern bridge, and is embanked. There are bridges over the Drojë, the Ishm, and its tributaries. The section between Vorrë and Durazzo is also part of highway 13, from the latter to Tirana. There are modern bridges spanning the Erzen, and the outlet to Durazzo lagoon (Kënetë e Durrësit).

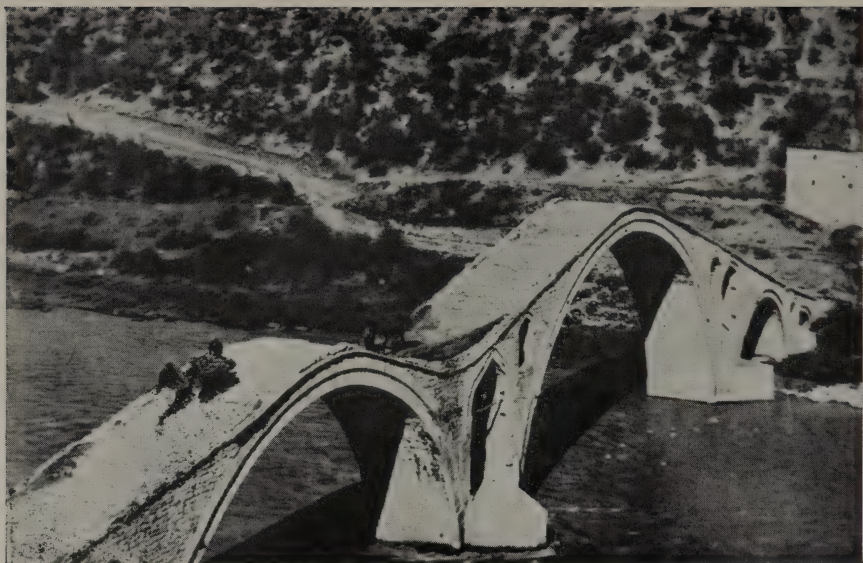
The road is standard two-way, surfaced with asphalt and suitable for heavy traffic.



143. *Wooden bridge with central truss*



144. *Wooden cantilever bridge, south of Ndrejaj over L. i Shalës*



145. *Ura e Vezirit stone bridge, NE. of Kukës, over the White Drin*



146. *Turkish bridge over the Lum i Lanës at Tirana*

Between Scutari and Durazzo there was a bus service which took 4 hours 50 minutes.

Itinerary

Distance in miles		Height in feet	Route	Distance in kilometres	
0	81½	44	SCUTARI.	0	131·0
2½	79	..	5-span bridge of steel girders on 4 masonry piers over Drin. Total length about 395 feet. Kir and Drin unite east of bridge.	3·6	127·4
3½	77¾	..	BËRDICË E SIPËRME. Route 31 to Pulaj branches to right.	5·5	125·5
9½	71¾	39	BUSHAT.	14·9	116·1
14½	66¾	23	GRAMSH. Road approaches Drin. Liable to flood. Track to Vau i Dëjës on Route 5.	23·4	107·6
18½	62¾	..	KAKARRIQ. Road confined between hills on right and Drin on left.	29·6	101·4
21	60½	30	BALLDRËN. Marshy area. Liable to flood.	33·7	97·3
21¾	59½	..	Bridge over outlet to Kënetë e Kakarriqit swamp.	35·0	96·0
23¾	57½	..	Junction with road to Shëngjin (S. Giovanni de Medua), Route 8.	38·5	92·5
25	56½	23	LESH. A track from here, 20 miles long, to Vau i Dëjës, follows left bank of Drin via Gramsh. A two-way metalled road may connect Lesh with copper mines at Rrubig and Bulshizë, but details are lacking. 2-span reinforced concrete bow-string bridges, 388 feet long, over Drin.	40·0	91·0
28½	52¾	..	SPITEN. Several small bridges.	46·1	84·9
33¾	47½	..	Road makes a sudden bend eastward into valley of the Mat. Original road continues south to river, which is fordable in the dry season.	54·5	76·5
35	46½	200	Road narrows and passes over a low saddle. Hairpin bends.	55·6	75·4
36	45½	89	PLLANË. Junction with Route 11. Concrete bridge in six spans of 17 ft. 8 in. each, over Mat.	58·0	73·0
38	43½	..	MILOT. Road leaves Mat valley and follows base of hills. Swampy plain to west. Several small bridges.	61·0	70·0
41	40½	..	SHULLAZ. Branch-road west will take motor traffic as far as Gurz	66·3	64·7

Distance in miles		Height in feet	Route	Distance in kilometres	
			(4½ miles) and perhaps beyond. Italians were working on this road in 1942. Another track to the east leads to the village of Delbinisht, once the seat of an important bishopric.		
47½	33½	..	MAMURAS. Bridge over Drojë 179 ft. long.	76·6	54·4
58½	22¾	..	Road junction to Krujë and Burrel (Route 12). Bridge over Lum i Zezës, tributary of Ishm.	94·0	37·0
59	22½	59	Junction with a new road running south direct to Tirana so as to by-pass Vorrë. How far this road has been completed is uncertain.	95·0	36·0
60½	21	..	Bridge, 225 feet long, over Lum i Tiranës, tributary of Ishm.	97·0	34·0
67½	13¾	150	VORRË. Road joins Durazzo-Tirana highway (Route 13).	109·2	21·8
71½	9¾	..	Beginning of new road by-passing Shijak.	115·0	16·0
74	7½	..	New reinforced concrete bridge about 250 feet long and 18-20 feet wide over Erzen.	119·8	11·2
75	6½	69	SHIJAK on the old road. Beyond Shijak an old iron bridge spanned the Erzen. It was repaired in 1942 after destruction in 1939.	121·6	9·4
75½	5¾	..	End of Shijak by-pass.	121·7	9·3
78½	3	..	Bridge about 90 feet long, over drainage canal.	126·2	4·8
80	1½	..	Road junction with Route 9.	128·3	2·7
80½	1	..	Bridge of 100 feet, probably of iron, over outlet from Durazzo lagoon to sea.	129·0	2·0
81½	0	23	DURAZZO.	131·0	0

Route 8. LESH-SHËNGJIN (S. GIOVANNI DI MEDUA): 5½ miles.

This is the only road which serves the small port of Shëngjin on the gulf of Drin. It is generally flat without any remarkable gradients, standard two-way, and has been metalled. The surface may now be asphalted. On the west of the road are swamps, on the east a razor-backed line of hills.

Route 9. DURAZZO-RROGOZHINË-LUSHNJE-FIER-VALONA: 77 miles.

A continuation of Route 7, it is important because most of the

roads into the interior join it. An oil pipe-line has been laid alongside the road from Fier to the oil-port of Krionero (*Alb.* Uj të ftohtë).

Between Durazzo and Rogozhinë floods used to be common, but the road has been improved and shortened recently.

From Durazzo the road follows the shore of the bay for 7-8 miles and then strikes south-west with low-lying marshy ground on the west and low hills on the east. West of Rogozhinë the road alters direction up the Shkumbî valley in order to cross the river on firm ground. It continues south-south-east, still at the edge of the marshy coastal plain, to the market town of Lushnje, where there is an important road junction (Route 18). The road now strikes south-west across the coastal plain again and crosses the Seman near Fier. Here there is another road junction (Routes 19, 40, and 35). Climbing a ridge of hills which extends towards the sea, and descending into the valley of the Vjosë, it has gradients as steep as 1 in 15 and 1 in 20. The rest of the road is comparatively flat. The chief obstacles used to be the river crossings (Shkumbî at Rogozhinë, Seman near Fier, and Vjosë at Ferras), but modern bridges have been made probably of reinforced concrete and bowstring trusses.

From Durazzo to Valona the road is standard double track, and asphalted throughout.

A bus service is said to work between Durazzo and Kavajë in 30 min., Kavajë-Lushnje in 1 hr., Lushnje-Fier in 40 min., Fier-Valona in 1 hr. or in all Durazzo to Valona in 3 hr. 10 min. (24 m.p.h. average). This speaks well for the condition of the road.

Itinerary

Distance in miles	Height in feet	Route	Distance in kilometres
77	0	DURAZZO.	0 124.0
75½	1½	Iron bridge, length 100 feet, over outlet to Durazzo lagoon.	2.7 121.3
73	4	Road junction to Tirana (Route 14; Tirana 'autostrada' by Ndroq).	6.5 117.5
71½	5½	SHKAMB I KAVAJËS. Road at foot of steep cliff.	8.0 116.0
70¼	6¾	Bridge over Kriezia, dimensions uncertain, road embanked.	10.9 113.1
68	9	Road passes close under steep cliff. On left of road embankment of a projected railway.	14.5 109.5
66½	10¾	Bridge over Leshniqe river.	17.5 106.5
64½	12½	KAVAJË.	20.0 104.0
62¾	14¼	Concrete bridge over Darç river.	23.0 101.0
58	19	Village of Gosë to left of road.	30.8 93.2

Distance in miles		Height in feet	Route	Distance in kilometres	
53½	23½	79	RROGOZHINË. Marshy to west.	38.0	86.0
52½	24½	..	Reinforced concrete bridge over Shkumbî.	40.0	84.0
43	34	88	LUSHNJE. Road junction with Route 34.	55.0	69.0
			Bridge of 2 reinforced concrete spans, each 34 feet.		
41½	35½	..	Road junction with Route 18.	57.0	67.0
29	48	..	BROSTAR. Scattered hamlet. Track to Libofshë on right.	77.3	46.7
28	49	..	Reinforced concrete bowstring truss, length 311 feet, spanning river Seman.	79.0	45.0
26½	50½	..	Steel bridge over tributary of Seman. Road narrow and winding.	81.4	42.6
25½	51½	52	FIER. Oil pumping station. Road to Port Seman (Route 35). Also roads to Poshnjë (Route 19) and Tepelenë (Route 40).	82.8	41.2
23½	53½	..	DRIZË-MYRTEZAJ. A track eastwards on the left possibly extends as far as Selenicë where there is a bitumen field, and may also link up with the main road to Valona at Levan-Samari.	85.9	38.1
20	57	..	LEVAN-SAMARI, track eastwards. Marshy ground between here and Ferras.	91.4	32.6
17	60	16	FERRAS. Reinforced concrete bowstring truss bridge, length 777 feet, over Vijosë river. Road begins to ascend.	96.0	28.0
11½	65½	..	SKROFOTINË. Oil pumping station and tanks.	105.3	18.7
5½	71½	..	BESTROVË.	114.5	9.5
0	77	16	VALONA.	124.0	0

Route 10. VALONA-PORT PALERMO-SARANDË: 82½ miles.

A main road, though not an easy one, it continues Routes 7 and 9 to Sarandë. After leaving Valona the road follows the shore of the bay for 10-11 miles, at the base of a steep cliff through which there is a short tunnel at 6¾ miles. It then swings south-east to ascend the L. i Dukatit valley which lies in a fold between M. i Çikës and Rreza e Kanalit. Its highest point is at Llogora pass (between 3,200 and 3,500 ft.) at the valley head. The surface is metalled, and is asphalted over a portion of its length. Generally it is standard, two-way, but narrows in some villages and has many S-bends. Gradients of 1 in 15

and 1 in 20 are reported and some are probably steeper. Llogora pass is liable to be blocked by snow in winter.

Itinerary

Distance in miles		Height in feet	Route	Distance in kilometres	
82½	0	..	VALONA.	0	132·8
78½	4½	..	KRIONERO. Terminal of oil pipeline from Kuçovë (see Route 20). Short tunnel through prominent spur.	6·7	126·1
76	6½	..	Bridge over Izvor river.	10·5	122·3
71	11½	46	Bridge (no details available) over Lum i Dukatit.		
63½	19½	..	DUKAT village.	31·0	101·8
56½	26	3,300	Summit of Llogora pass between M. i Çikës and coastal mountains. Many zigzag bends in descent.	42·0	90·8
49½	33	790	Narrow bridge over watercourse.	53·2	79·6
46½	35½	1,148	PALASË village and monastery on foothills of M. i Çikës.	57·5	75·3
45½	37	550	DHËRM.	59·7	73·1
40½	42½	1,040	VUNO.	68·0	64·8
39	43½	1,150	Top of rise. Road narrows, and is on galleries in places.	70·3	62·5
37	45½	520	HIMARË.	73·3	59·5
30	52½	0	PORT PALERMO.	85·0	47·8
25	57½	50	Ford over Prroni i Kudhësit and reinforced concrete bridge (length 190 ft.) over Borsh torrent. Borsh village (820 ft.) is a mile away to the left on a hilly track which joins the Valona-Tepelenë road (Route 21).	93·3	39·5
19	63½	655	PIQERAS. Winding descent.	102·0	30·8
14½	68	700	LUKOVË. Road begins to leave the coast and winds up to Shën Vasil.	109·4	23·4
9½	72½	800	SHËN VASIL. Steady descent with sharp bends.	117·0	15·8
1½	80½	200	Road junction with Route 26.	130·0	2·8
0	82½	..	SARANDË.	132·8	0

Route II. MILE 36 (PLLANË) ON ROUTE 7-PROSEK-BURREL: 30-35 miles (estimated).

This new road, following an ancient track, has been recently made by the Italians (1940) and is standard two-way, although not asphalted. Leaving the Scutari-Durazzo road (Route 7) north of the bridge over the Mat, it follows the right bank of that river, and of the Fan, to the confluence of the Dibër. At Bulshizë it is joined

by a direct track from Lesh, crossing the Q. e Shparës (1,840 ft.). At Ndërfanë another track leads north-east, up the ridge between the Fan i madh and the Fan i vögel, to the heart of the Mirditë country. Crossing the watershed between Fan and Mat the road passes Prosek (1,000 ft.), descends to the Urakë, and follows first the right, and then the left, bank of the Mat to Burrel, where it joins Route 12. The road is reported to be fairly level and the bridges are probably new.

Route 12. FROM 58½ MILES ON ROUTE 7 TO KRUIË-BURREL-BURGAJET-PESHKOPI: 60 miles.

An important road recently improved and metalled as far as Burrel, but not two-way throughout. Leaving Route 7 north of the bridge over L. i Zezës, it climbs north-eastwards to the pass (Drojë gorge) north of Kruië. Turning south-east and passing Kamzë, it climbs M. i Skanderbeut ridge to the pass (Q. e Shtambës: 4,075 ft.), descends again by the Gërman valley, to cross the Mat at Burrel. Here it joins Route 11 from the north and Route 32 from the south. Continuing eastwards the road passes Burgajet and the Lysa Lis valley. It crosses the Drin by a modern bridge. The section from Burrel to Peshkopi is probably not easy, and the exact track is not known. There used to be alternative tracks from Burgajet onwards.

Itinerary

Distance in miles		Height in feet	Route	Distance in kilometres	
60	0	102	Junction with Route 7 at bridge over L. i Zezës.	0	96.0
53	7	1,600	Winding with hairpin bends. KRUIË lies off the road on the slopes of Mal i Kruiës at 3,858 feet above the sea.	11.5	84.5
45½	14½	2,565	Summit of pass.	22.3	73.7
44½	15½	2,300	CEDHIN.	25.5	70.5
41½	18½	2,900	KAMZË.	29.2	66.8
39½	20½	4,030	Summit of pass (Q. e Shtambës); inn. Road very winding with hairpin bends.	32.5	63.5
37½	22½	3,050	Q. e Selbës.	36.8	59.2
32½	27½	1,300 (approx.)	MUZHAKË.	44.8	51.2
30	30	1,050	BURREL. Road descends valley of the Mat.	48.3	47.7

<i>Distance in miles</i>		<i>Height in feet</i>	<i>Route</i>	<i>Distance in kilometres</i>	
28½	31½	460	Bridge over the Mat. Junction, Route 32.	50·8	45·2
27½	32½	550 (approx.)	NORTH BURREL. Junction, Route 11. Road turns east.	53·4	42·6
24½	35½	1,634	BURGAJET. Beyond this point distances and heights are approximate only.	57·0	39·0
19½	40½	1,950	VINJALL.	65·3	30·7
16	44	2,900	MURRË. The road crosses the watershed between the Mat and the Drin between Vinjall and Murrë.	71·0	25·0
13	47	2,630	SELİŞTË. The road now appears to follow the valley of Prroni i Murrës to the Drin, which it crosses north of the confluence of the two rivers.	76·0	20·0
8	52	..	River Drin. Bridge of 5 arches each of 65 feet span.	84·0	12·0
0	60	2,050	PESHKOPI.	96·0	0

Route 13. DURAZZO-VORRË-TIRANA: 24 miles.

The older of the two roads connecting the chief port with the capital. Identical with Route 7 as far as Vorrë (about 13½ miles), it then diverges south-east, ascending very gradually, and then descends to the bridge over a tributary of L. i Tiranës. About 4 miles farther on it crosses another tributary, and then the plain of Tirana, to enter the town. The road is standard two-way, and asphalted. Gradients are easy throughout except on an old road, now by-passed, through Shijak on which there is a gradient of 1 in 15.

Itinerary

<i>Distance in miles</i>		<i>Height in feet</i>	<i>Route</i>	<i>Distance in kilometres</i>	
0	24	23	DURAZZO.	0	38·6
			Iron bridge, 100 feet long, over outlet from Durazzo lagoon.	2·0	36·6
1½	22½	..	Junction with Routes 9 and 14.	2·7	35·9
5½	18½	..	Beginning of new road to by-pass Shijak.	9·3	29·3
6½	17½	..	Minor road to north.	10·5	28·1

<i>Distance in miles</i>		<i>Height in feet</i>	<i>Route</i>	<i>Distance in kilometres</i>	
7	17	..	Recently built reinforced concrete bridge over Erzen about 250 feet long and 18-20 feet wide.	11.2	27.4
13½	10½	180	VORRË. Junction with Route 7.	21.8	16.8
16¼	7¼	167	High bridge over tributary of L. i Tiranës.	26.0	12.6
19	5	194	Bridge over the Lanë. Junction with Route 38.	30.7	7.9
24	0	397	Tirana. Junction with Routes 14, 15, and 37.	38.6	0

Route 14. DURAZZO-NDROQ-TIRANA: 23½ miles.

The newer of the two roads connecting Durazzo and Tirana, completed in August 1940.

Following Route 9 for the first 4 miles, it then turns east and rises over low hills to descend to the valley of the Erzen, which it follows through Ndroq to the plain of Tirana and so to the city itself. Tirana is about 375 feet higher than Durazzo.

The road, a so-called autostrada, is one of the best in Albania, though landslides have occurred about mile 13. The road is two-way and surfaced with asphalt; there are no severe gradients. Heavy traffic is prohibited.

Itinerary

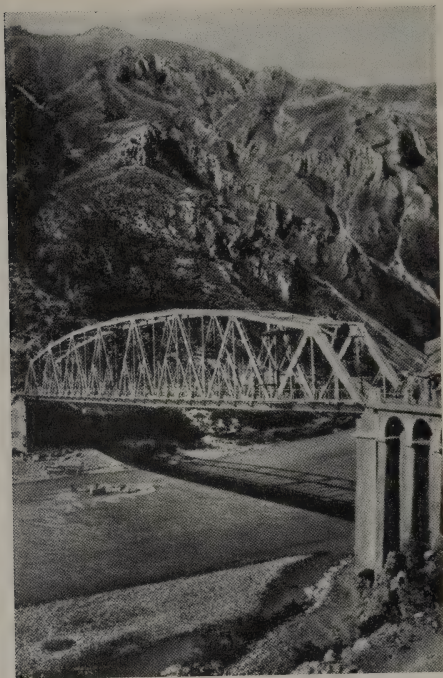
<i>Distance in miles</i>		<i>Height in feet</i>	<i>Route</i>	<i>Distance in kilometres</i>	
0	23½	23	DURAZZO.	0	37.8
1¼	22¼	..	An iron bridge about 100 feet long over outlet to Durazzo lagoon.	2.0	35.8
2¾	20¾	..	Junction with Route 7.	2.7	35.1
4	19½	..	Leaves Durazzo-Valona road and becomes broader.	6.5	31.3
13½	10	..	NDROQ.	22.0	15.8
18	5½	295	Bridge over river Erzen. Details unknown.	28.8	9.0
21	2½	338	Crest of rise.	33.6	4.2
22	1½	295	Bridge over the Lanë.	35.5	2.3
23½	0	397	TIRANA; junction with Routes 13, 15, and 37.	37.8	0



147. *Venetian bridge over R. Kir near Mes, 3 miles NE. of Scutari*



148. *The Kurd Pasha bridge from Berat to the Goricë suburb*



149. *Lattice girder bridge over the Vjosë at Dragot, in Gryka e Këlcyrës gorge, looking NE. towards Shëndëlli*



150. *Bridge over R. Gomsiqe: SE. of Gojan*

Route 15. TIRANA-ELBASAN: 34½ miles.

This road is standard, two-way, and asphalted, but it crosses difficult country and has sharp gradients (1 in 8 and 1 in 15) and many S-bends. Leaving Tirana by the 'Piazza Scanderbeg' and the 'Via Mussolini', it strikes south through a gap in the hills to enter the Erzen valley. It then crosses the Krrabë plateau, over rough and broken country, descends to the Shkumbi valley, and reaches Elbasan by turning east along Route 16. On the Krrabë plateau snow blocks and fog are common in winter.

Itinerary

<i>Distance in miles</i>		<i>Height in feet</i>	<i>Route</i>	<i>Distance in kilometres</i>	
0	34½	397	TIRANA.	0	55.0
3½	30½	515	Modern bridge.	6.1	48.9
5½	29	..	Bridge.	8.5	46.5
7	27½	..	Bridge over river Erzen. Village and monastery of Mullet to left of road.	11.4	43.6
12½	22	1,463	MESQETË. Hairpin bends.	20.0	35.0
15	19½	2,333	Q. e Dervenit.	24.0	31.0
16½	17½	2,490	Begins to cross Krrabë plateau.	26.5	28.5
18½	16	1,950 (approx.)	Village of TËRBAÇ to right and below road. Road winds along west slopes of plateau above valley. Slopes are precipitous.	29.5	25.5
21½	12½	..	The road passes north of Mal i Shëmhillit (2,185 ft.) and turns south; winding descent.	34.6	20.4
24½	9½	1,360	Leaves Krrabë plateau by steep winding descent.	40.0	15.0
30½	3½	315	Junction with Route 16.	49.0	6.0
34½	0	427	ELBASAN.	55.0	0

Route 16. RROGOZHINË (on Route 9)-PEQIN-ELBASAN: 27¾ miles.

Originally part of the Roman *Via Egnatia*, it was, up to modern times, a poor track and liable to flood, but it has been recently embanked and bridged over water. It is now all-weather, and is standard two-way and asphalted.

From Rrogozhinë the road keeps to the north bank of the Shkumbi river and crosses several of its tributaries. It is joined by the Route 15 from Tirana 4 miles short of Elbasan.

Itinerary

Distance in miles		Height in feet	Route	Distance in kilometres	
0	27 $\frac{3}{4}$	79	RROGOZHINË.	0	44.6
3 $\frac{1}{2}$	24 $\frac{1}{2}$	79	Bridge, 70 feet long, over deep-cut stream.	5.2	39.4
6	21 $\frac{3}{4}$	174	PEQIN.	9.6	35.0
9 $\frac{1}{2}$	18 $\frac{1}{2}$	..	Bridge.	15.2	29.4
9 $\frac{3}{4}$	18	..	Bridge, 102 feet long, over stream.	15.9	28.7
12 $\frac{1}{2}$	15 $\frac{1}{2}$	225	BISHQEM, village north of road.	19.9	24.7
14 $\frac{1}{2}$	13 $\frac{1}{2}$	205	Bridge over stream. Road between hill and river, heavily embanked as far as	23.6	21.0
18	9 $\frac{3}{4}$	..	Concrete bridge, 385 feet long, over river Papër.	29.0	15.6
21	6 $\frac{3}{4}$	..	VIDHAS-MALLKASE.	33.8	10.8
24	3 $\frac{3}{4}$	315	Route 15 joins from north.	38.6	6.0
27 $\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{1}{4}$	360	Bridge about 200 feet at entrance to Elbasan.	44.2	0.4
27 $\frac{3}{4}$	0	427	ELBASAN.	44.6	0

Route 17. ELBASAN-LIBRAZHD-QUKËS-LIN-POGRADEK-KORÇË: 80 miles.

This road continues the old Roman *Via Egnatia* and follows the right bank of the Shkumbî river as far as Mirakë.

The river is unfordable and the road cut into the hill-side. Crossing the Shkumbî by a concrete bridge at Mirakë the road, on a steep friable hill-side with many springs, suffers from landslides. At Librazhd Route 36, a mountain road to Shëpenzë, leaves northwards. Route 17 continues south-eastward up the Shkumbî to Qukës. Turning east at Qukës the road ascends the Lingajçë ravine and, crossing the Q. e Thanës, which is often blocked by snow in winter, it descends steeply to Lin on Lake Ochrida. At the pass Route 28 turns off north to Struga for Debar and Peshkopi. From Lin Route 17 leads south along the narrow shore to Pogradec, then crosses the plain between Lakes Ochrida and Maliq. In the middle of this plain a branch road diverges south-east to pass Lake Maliq on the east and to join Route 41. Route 17 continues along the marshy western shore of Lake Maliq, crossing the Devoll. Near Maliq village Route 33 comes in from the west, and 17 continues to Korçë.

This route is standard two-way throughout, and asphalted, as far as is known, between Elbasan and Korçë. There are steep gradients and many S-bends.

Itinerary

Distance in miles		Height in feet	Route	Distance in kilometres	
0	80	430	ELBASAN. Routes 15, 16, 17, 33 enter the town.	0	129.0
5	75	530	LABINOT I POSHTËM (Lower Labi-not). Bridge over Shkumbi. Road confined between hills and river. Road ascends.	7.9	121.1
8½	71½	..	XIBRRAKË. Road enters a narrow gorge known as the 'Shkallë e Mirakës' (Stairs of Mirakë). Road on bank and in cutting. Many sharp bends.	13.8	115.2
10¼	69¾	..	MIRAKË village.	16.5	112.5
11½	68½	720	Concrete bridge, 247 feet long, over Shkumbi. Road runs through narrow defile under steep hill-side. Landslides used to be prevalent. Blind curves.	18.4	110.6
14¾	65¼	..	Road recrosses Shkumbi by modern bridge, 276 feet long.	23.7	105.3
15	65	800	LIBRAZHD village to left of road. Bridge over tributary of Shkumbi. Route 36 joins	24.0	105.0
25½	54½	1,260	Reinforced concrete bridge, 104 feet long, over river Bishtricë.	41.2	87.8
27¾	52¾	1,410	QUKËS to right of road. Track on left to mountain villages.	44.5	84.5
32	48	..	Road enters Fusha e Kododeshit.		
32¾	47¾	1,950	Village of PRENJAS to left.	52.9	76.1
36¼	43¾	..	Steep winding ascent.	58.3	70.7
39	41	3,050	Pass (Q. e Thanës). Pass may be snow-bound in winter. Road descends steeply with many bends.	62.8	66.2
41¾	38¾	2,300	Road junction; Route 28. LIN ½ mile farther on, on the shore of L. Ochrida.	67.2	61.8
			Road turns south along shore of lake.		
54¼	25¼	2,300	POGRADEC. Minor road to south end of L. Ochrida.	87.4	41.6
57¾	22¾	..	ZERVASKË village. Road rises over col.	93.0	36.0
59¾	20¾	2,700	Reinforced concrete bridge, 118 feet long, over river Çeravë.	96.0	33.0
			ÇERAVË village.		
62¾	17¾	..	Minor road to left which keeps to the east of Maliq swamp and continues to Bilisht.	101.0	28.0
63¾	16¾	..	VELITERNË: bridge over 2 streams.	102.6	26.4
67¾	12¾	2,680	SOVJAN village. Hairpin bends follow.	109.2	19.8

Distance in miles		Height in feet	Route	Distance in kilometres	
70	10	2,650	Bridge, type of construction unknown, over river Devoll. Road junction Route 33.	112.9	16.1
77½	2½	..	Bridge over Dunavec river followed by 3 other bridges.	125.0	4.0
80	0	2,740	KORÇË. Junction with Routes 23 and 24.	129.0	0

Route 18. LUSHNJE (Route 9)–POSHNJË–BERAT–KËLCYRË (Route 21)–PERAT–GREEK FRONTIER: 96 miles.

The road leaves Route 9 at Lushnje, passes through Poshnjë, where Route 19 joins from the west, to Berat. Crossing the Osum, the road enters difficult country and rises over 2,700 feet, in less than 20 miles, to a pass (Q. e Gllavës). Thence it descends into the Deshnicë valley, following the right bank to Këlcyrë (junction with Route 21 from Tepelenë). At Përmet a second-class road comes in from the east (Route 42). Reaching Petran the road deteriorates, being often less than 16 feet in width.

From Lushnje to Petran the road is standard, two-way, but not asphalted throughout. South of Petran it is metalled, but sometimes only single track. Gradients as sharp as 1 in 11 are mentioned. Bridges are mainly timber.

Itinerary

Distance in miles		Height in feet	Route	Distance in kilometres	
0	96	88	LUSHNJE; Route 9.	0	154.8
8½	87½	..	Village of KUÇ on height to right. Bridge over the Seman.		
14½	81½	..	POSHNJË. Junction with Route 19.	23.5	131.3
16½	79½	99	URA E HASAN BEUT. Stone bridge on 2 piers. Junction with Route 20.	27.0	127.8
18½	77½	..	MORAVË to right of road. Bridge. Road follows east side of valley crossing several streams to	30.2	124.6
24½	71½	230	BERAT. Road junction, Route 39. Bridge over Osum. Road strikes south with S-bends and ascends to	39.5	115.3
27½	68½	1,106	DOBRONIK. Winding ascent continues.	43.9	110.9
29½	66½	2,000 (approx.)	BREGU I ÇADËRES. Descent and ascent to	47.7	107.1



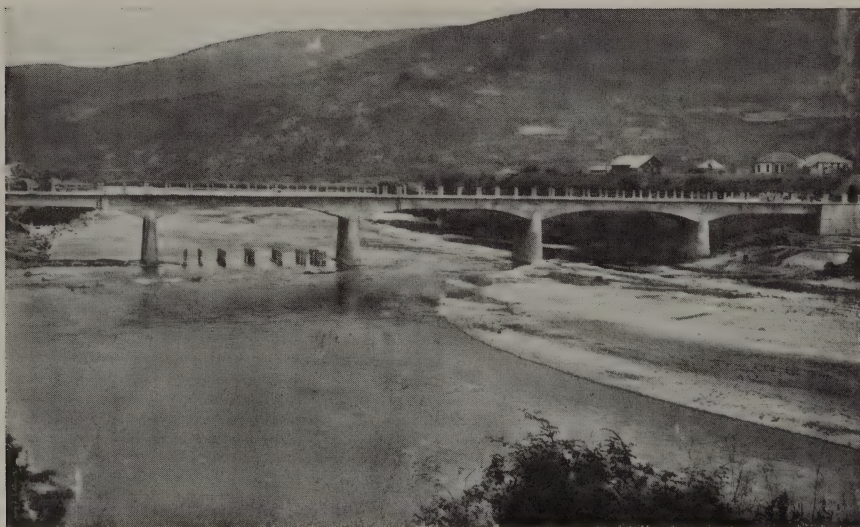
151. *Bridge over the Shkumbî at Rrogozhinë*



152. *Bridge over Prroni i Borshit on the Sarandë-Valona road*



153. *Bridge over the Rrjoll, on the Scutari-Koplik road*



154. *Bridge at Kukës over the Black Drin*

Distance in miles		Height in feet	Route	Distance in kilometres	
33½	62½	2,360	Summit of pass (Q. e Kumbullës).	54.4	100.4
37	59	2,340	LAMANJ. Road descends to	59.7	95.1
38½	57½	2,040	Bridge at end of valley. ÇOROQAF on height to left of road. Zigzag ascent of Mount Çoroqaf begins. Steep and narrow road.	61.7	93.1
41½	54½	2,550	Top of rise. Steep descent then ascent to	66.4	88.4
44½	51½	2,960	Summit of pass (Q. e Gllavës). Sharp descent and ascent to	71.1	83.7
46½	49½	2,680	Summit of Q. e Murisit.	74.6	80.2
49½	46½	1,950	Buz. Sharp descent, road then (approx.) climbs in winding course to	79.4	75.4
52½	43½	2,300	Pass (Q. e Kiqokut).	84.5	70.3
56½	39½	925	Bridge over Zall i Deshnicës, Han i Ballabanit. Road descends along left bank of Deshnicë.	91.1	63.7
59½	36½	990	SUKË.	95.5	59.3
63½	32½	600	KËLCYRË. Junction Route 21.	102.7	52.1
73½	22½	951	Bridge, 250 feet long over Vijosë. PËRMET to west of road. Track to Shtikë.	118.9	35.9
78½	17½	1,100	PETRAN. Han i Mercëqit to left.	126.5	28.3
85	11	1,310	Winding road along slopes of Mal i Çarshovës.	136.9	17.9
92½	3½	1,122	PERAT, above road to left.	149.0	5.8
94½	1½	..	Road junction with Route 23. Greek frontier.	152.2	2.6
96	0	..	Bridge over Vijosë.	154.8	0

Route 19. FIER (on Route 9)–ROSKOVEC–POSHNJË (Route 18): 20 miles.

This road crosses the coastal plain and is parallel to and 2 miles south of the river Seman. It is standard, two-way, and metalled. There are some sharp bends about mile 6½ and near Poshnjë. Gradients are easy.

Itinerary

Distance in miles		Height in feet	Route	Distance in kilometres	
0	20	52	FIER (Route 9) on coastal plain.	0	32.0
3½	16½	..	GORICË. Road junction to Ballsh oil-fields and Tepelenë (Route 40).	5.2	26.8
5	15	..	VERBAS village to right of road	8.0	24.0
6½	13½	..	Bridge over the Vlosh, a tributary of the Seman.	11.0	21.0

Distance in miles		Height in feet	Route	Distance in kilometres	
7 $\frac{3}{4}$	12 $\frac{1}{4}$	..	Track to Ballsh.	12.5	19.5
9 $\frac{1}{4}$	10 $\frac{3}{4}$	..	KUMAN village. Bridge over Prr. i Atambresit.	15.0	17.0
10 $\frac{1}{2}$	9 $\frac{1}{2}$	..	ROSKOVEC	16.9	15.1
11 $\frac{3}{4}$	8 $\frac{1}{4}$	..	Oil pumping station.	19.0	13.0
15	5	..	POBRAT.	24.0	8.0
19	1	..	Pass: Q. e Sqepurit	30.6	1.4
20	0	..	POSHNJË. Junction with Route 18.	32.0	0

Route 20. URA E HASAN BEUT (bridge)—KUÇOVË: 3 $\frac{1}{2}$ miles.

This is a short but important road which serves the oilfield of Kuçovë. It leaves Route 18 just east of Ura Hasan Beut bridge over the Berat river. It is reported to be standard, two-way, metalled, and all-weather.

Route 21. VALONA—TEPELENË—KËLCYRË: 61 $\frac{1}{2}$ miles.

The main road from Valona into the interior, and also into Greece. The road crosses a ridge of hills east of Valona, and descends into the steep-sided valley of the L. i Shushicës. It turns south to follow the right bank of this river for 6 miles or so, then strikes south-east to ascend to, and wind along, the north-east flanks of the Griba range, from which it descends into the valley of the Vjosë and follows it into Tepelenë. After Tepelenë it enters the Këlcyrë gorge, keeping to the north bank of the Vjosë. At Këlcyrë it joins the road from Lushnjë to the Greek frontier (Route 18).

The road is standard two-way. One report states that it is asphalted throughout; later reports speak of the poor condition of the surface in the mountain section. It is doubtful if the surface has been asphalted between Tepelenë and Këlcyrë. The road is winding and hilly: gradients as steep as 1 in 8 are encountered.

Itinerary

Distance in miles		Height in feet	Route	Distance in kilometres	
0	61 $\frac{1}{2}$	..	VALONA.	0	99.0
3 $\frac{1}{4}$	57 $\frac{3}{4}$	206	QISHBARDHË. Road forks to alternate bridges over L. i Shushicës. Right fork better road.	6.2	92.8
6 $\frac{1}{4}$	55 $\frac{1}{4}$	..	DRASHOVICË: bridge over L. i Shushicës.	9.9	89.1

Distance in miles		Height in feet	Route	Distance in kilometres	
12 $\frac{3}{4}$	48 $\frac{3}{4}$	..	Bridge over the Karmalijë.	20.5	78.5
14	47 $\frac{1}{2}$	..	Road fork: minor road to right leads to Brataj and joins Route 10 at Borsh.	22.5	76.5
19	42 $\frac{1}{2}$	900	VAJZË. Road winds in hairpin bends round M. e Tartarit.	30.6	68.4
23 $\frac{1}{2}$	38	1,770	Pass (Q. e Luadit) descent begins.	38.0	61.0
24 $\frac{3}{4}$	36 $\frac{3}{4}$	1,250	MAZHAR village to left of road.	40.0	59.0
26	35 $\frac{1}{2}$	..	End of descent, road winds upwards.	42.0	57.0
27 $\frac{1}{4}$	34 $\frac{1}{4}$	1,970	Top of rise, steep descent.	44.1	54.9
29 $\frac{1}{4}$	32 $\frac{1}{4}$	..	Mahmut Gjinaj. Road now winds along hill-sides of Vjosë valley.	47.3	51.7
31 $\frac{1}{4}$	30 $\frac{1}{4}$	860	SINANAJ.	50.4	48.6
31 $\frac{3}{4}$	29 $\frac{3}{4}$	250	Reinforced concrete bridge over deep-cut tributary of Vjosë. Rises to over 1,000 feet.	51.4	47.6
39 $\frac{1}{4}$	22 $\frac{1}{4}$	800	Reinforced concrete bridge.	63.3	35.7
43 $\frac{3}{4}$	17 $\frac{3}{4}$	..	DUKAJ.	70.5	28.5
46 $\frac{3}{4}$	14 $\frac{3}{4}$	784	Reinforced concrete bridge over Lum i Bençës. Very sharp hairpin bend west of Tepelenë.	75.2	23.8
50	11 $\frac{1}{2}$	460	L. i Bençës, at entrance to Tepelenë, can be crossed by an old Turkish bridge (single masonry arch), or by new lower level bridge.	80.3	18.7
50 $\frac{3}{4}$	10 $\frac{3}{4}$	400	TEPELENË. Road junction with Routes 22 and 40.	81.7	17.3
51	10 $\frac{1}{2}$	..	Bridge over Vjosë has been destroyed (report 1941) and a ferry seems to have been opened. The bridge may have been repaired. Bridges can also be found near Tepelenë on Routes 22 and 40.	82.4	16.6
54	7 $\frac{1}{2}$	300	DRAGOT at entrance to gorge of Vjosë between Mts. Shëndëlli and Golik. Road follows north bank. By-pass to Route 21 on right.	87.1	11.9
60 $\frac{3}{4}$	$\frac{3}{4}$	..	Bridge over Zall i Deshnicës was destroyed during Greek campaign in Albania. May have been rebuilt.	97.8	1.2
61 $\frac{1}{2}$	0	600	Këlcyrë. Junction with Route 18.	99.0	0

Route 22. TEPELENË-GJINOKASTËR-KAKAVI (Greek Frontier): 36 $\frac{1}{2}$ miles.

This continues Route 21 as one of the two main roads into western Greece. It follows the western side of the Dhrino valley first through a narrow gorge and then on the margin of an alluvial plain. Beyond

the frontier the valley again contracts. The road has a good foundation and is standard two-way, with a rough stony surface. It may be asphalted as far as Gjinokastër, but is in poor condition. The profile is undulating, but there are no severe gradients. The trace of the road is winding, and there are some sharp curves. The bridges have been damaged by war, but repairs have been made.

Itinerary

<i>Distance in miles</i>		<i>Height in feet</i>	<i>Route</i>	<i>Distance in kilometres</i>	
0	36½	400	TEPELENË. Junction with Routes 21 and 40.	0	58·5
3	33½	..	LUZAT to right of road. Reinforced concrete bridge over stream. On left, Lekël bridge, which carries a by-pass road across the Dhrino to join road to Këlcyrë (Route 22).	5·0	53·5
8½	27½	560	SUBASH to left of road. Valley widens, road at level of valley floor.	14·0	44·5
12½	24	..	Stone bridge over L. i Kardhiqit.	20·0	38·5
16½	20	..	Bridge over Viroj.	26·5	32·0
17½	19	..	Road fork. On left, road over old Byzantine bridge to Gjinokastër airfield 1 mile from main road.	28·0	30·5
18	18½	..	GJINOKASTËR to west of road.	29·0	29·5
24½	12	800	On left, minor road to Libohovë (1,853 ft.), continuing as far as Poliçan. From Poliçan there is a track across the mountains to Përmet on Route 18.	39·0	19·5
25½	11	800	SOFRATIKË village on right. A track leaves to Libohovë and Peshkeq and also to Poliçan.	41·5	17·0
30½	6	..	GJORGUCAT. Road junction with Route 25.	49·0	9·5
34½	2½	..	Bridge over stream at Bodrishtë.	55·0	3·5
35	1½	..	Stone bridge over stream at Kserje.	56·5	2·0
36½	0	1,150	KAKAVI. Frontier post. Road continues to join Route 18 for Yannina.	58·5	0

Route 23. PERAT-KORÇË: 56 miles.

An important but difficult road parallel to the frontier and connecting Routes 17, 18, and 24. The road is consistently high except for the last few miles, and is liable to snow-blocks in winter, particularly in the high mountain passes of Q. e Hazërit (mile 14) and Q. e Qarrit (mile 45·5).

It is a good, standard, two-way, metalled road and has probably

been improved by the Italians in recent years. Over mountain torrents and streams there are many bridges which seem to be of timber, but details are not available. There are stiff gradients, and 1 in 15 and 1 in 20 seem fairly common. The road is winding with many sharp curves, particularly at the following places: between miles 4-5, 8-11, 16-22, and 40-47. Several roads to hill villages branch off right and left.

Itinerary

Distance in miles		Height in feet	Route	Distance in kilometres	
0	56	1,122	Road leaves Route 18. PERAT 1 mile to north-west.	0	90.0
4-4½	51½-52	..	Hairpin bends.	6.5-7.7	82.3-83.5
8½	47½	2,980	LESKOVİK. Winding climb.	13.4	76.6
14	42	3,500 (approx.)	Pass. (Q. e Hazërit). Descent to	22.6	67.4
14½	41½	3,120	Road on western flanks of Majë e Kamenikut.	23.9	66.1
16	40	3,520	Hairpin bend. Bridge over tributary Lengarica; GËRMËNJ village on right on hill.	26.0	64.0
18½	37½	2,820	Reinforced concrete bridge over Lengarica. Road ascends and continues north-west on hill-side.	30.3	59.7
21½	34½	..	Road alters direction to north-east and descends to	35.2	54.8
22	34	..	Stream at Barmash.	35.6	54.4
23½	32½	3,000	BARMASH village on spur to right. Reinforced concrete bridge over stream. Steady climb, winding road to	38.2	51.8
28	28	3,250	BOROVË. Road curves outskirts of town and continues north-east. 2 reinforced concrete bridges.	45.2	44.8
31½	24½	3,400	ERSEKË. Tracks right and left to hill villages.	50.9	39.1
35½	20½	..	Bridge over stream.	57.2	32.8
36½	19½	..	3 reinforced concrete bridges.	59.3	30.7
38	18	..	Route 42 on left to Qafëzezi and Luaras. It may extend to Përmet (Route 18).	61.1	28.9
40	16	2,900	Bridge over ravine of Prr. i Shtikës (tributary of Osum).	64.2	25.8
41½	14½	..	Bridge over Osum river.	66.7	23.3
45½	10½	3,690	Summit of Q. e Qarrit. Descent to Korçë plain. Road winding, sharp curves.	73.1	16.9
49½	6½	..	Track to Kamenicë village on right.	79.6	10.4

Distance in miles		Height in feet	Route	Distance in kilometres	
51	5	..	DVORAN. On right track to Boboshticë (1.5 miles).	82.3	7.7
53	3	..	Bridge.	85.1	4.9
53½	2½	..	On right branch-road south to Boboshticë and Dardhë (9.5 miles). It continues over difficult country to Bilisht (23 miles). Road continues across plain to	86.1	3.9
56	0	2,740	KORÇË. Road junction Routes 17 and 24.	90.0	0

Route 24. KORÇË-BILISHT-GREEK FRONTIER: 23¼ miles.

This is the best route from the Korçë plain into Greece, to Florina, and the plain of Macedonia. It is the most direct route to Salonica, and it follows a fairly level course up to the frontier. From Korçë the road tends to the north-east and passes eastwards through the gap of the upper Devoll, keeping to the left bank of the river. It sweeps round the northern slopes of Morava and turns south-east to Bilisht, which is also in the Devoll valley. Here it turns north-east and follows the L. i Kapeshticës to the frontier.

The road is standard two-way, metalled, and recently reported to be asphalted as far as the frontier; beyond the frontier it is probably not so good. Concerning the bridges there is little information; there appear to be several fords or water splashes, but there is a modern reinforced concrete bridge at mile 14¼ over the upper Devoll. At Kapeshticë there is a wide hairpin bend, and thereafter a fairly winding road up the valley.

Itinerary

Distance in miles		Height in feet	Route	Distance in kilometres	
0	23¼	2,740	KORÇË.	0	37.3
3	20¼	..	DISHNICË to right of road.	5.0	32.3
4½	18½	..	Bridge. BELORTA to right of road.	7.6	29.7
6½	17	..	PLASË E POSHTËME.	10.0	27.3
7½	15¾	2,750	Road fork ½ mile north-west of Zemblak. Route 41 leads north.	12.0	25.3
9½	13½	..	CANGONJ.	15.5	21.8
11¼	12	..	On right track to Vranishtë (2 miles).	18.3	19.0
12½	10¾	..	On right track to Vranishtë (1¼ miles).	20.0	17.3
13½	10	2,789	Bridge over tributary of Devoll.	21.4	15.9

<i>Distance in miles</i>		<i>Height in feet</i>	<i>Route</i>	<i>Distance in kilometres</i>	
14½	9	..	3-span reinforced concrete bridge, 98 feet long, over Devoll.	22·8	14·5
17	6½	..	BILISHT to left of road. Road winds in gradual ascent along foot of mountains.	27·2	10·1
18½	4½	..	Bridge. Road tends south and then north-east in wide hairpin bend.	29·8	7·5
19¾	3½	..	KAPESHITICË. Road follows right bank of L. i Kapeshticës. Telegraph line beside road. Gradual ascent.	31·6	5·7
23½	0	..	Albanian-Greek frontier. Road continues in Kapeshticë valley, and reaches Florina (50 miles).	37·3	0

Route 25. SARANDË-DELVINË-GJORGUCAT: 27½ miles.

This road joins Routes 10 and 22. It is also the main road from the port of Sarandë into the interior, but is not in good condition. It crosses the M. i gjerë to reach Delvinë. From Delvinë the direction is eastward and the road is more difficult. In the Q. e Murzinës the winding ascent and descent are carried on galleries cut in mountain-flanks.

The surface is metalled and about 18 feet wide. Passing of heavy vehicles would probably be difficult in the mountainous sector from Delvinë to Gjorgucat (miles 11½-27½), but the road should be passable in all weathers. There are hairpin bends on the gradients on the east side of Q. e Murzinës, but the gradients as a whole are said not to be severe.

Itinerary

<i>Distance in miles</i>		<i>Height in feet</i>	<i>Route</i>	<i>Distance in kilometres</i>	
0	27½	..	SARANDË.	0	44·1
1½	26	..	Road junction with Route 10.	2·3	41·8
2½	25	200	GJASHTË. Road on west of valley of L. i Kalasës.	3·7	40·4
5½	22½	66	Bridge over L. i Kalasës (probably of stone).	8·5	35·6
6	21½	..	Road leaves main valley. Junction Route 27.	9·5	34·6
8½	18½	..	BAMATAT. Valley narrows.	14·0	30·1
11½	16½	750	DELVINË. Track over hills to Gjino-kastër on left.	18·0	26·1

<i>Distance in miles</i>		<i>Height in feet</i>	<i>Route</i>	<i>Distance in kilometres</i>	
12½	14½	1,600	Top of ascent from coast. Road turns south-east and winds along flank of mountain.	20·6	23·5
15½	12	750	Ravine.	24·9	19·2
18½	9	1,350	Top of rise.	29·5	14·6
20½	7½	1,150	KARDHIKAQ. Village in ravine. Ascent of Q. e Murzinës.	32·5	11·6
24	3½	1,870	Summit of pass. Road descends sharply in hairpin bends to Dhrino valley.	38·5	5·6
27½	0	870	GJORGUCAT. Junction with Route 22.	44·1	0

Route 26. SARANDË-SHËNGJERGJ: 5 miles.

This is a continuation of the coastal road from Valona (Route 10) and may by now have been extended to Butrinto. At first the road, one-way and metalled only for a width of 7 feet, winds along the base of the coastal hills, keeping within 100 yards of the sea. Then, after about 2½ miles, it enters a valley parallel to the coast and follows it to Shëngjergj monastery between Lake Butrinto and the sea. There is a jetty on the lake which serves Shëngjergj. Beyond the town, in 1941, the road degenerated into a mere track. It may have been improved.

Route 27. MILE 6 ON ROUTE 25-SOPIK-KONISPOL: 25 miles.

From Shijan, on Route 25, a standard two-way road, metalled, leads southwards through fertile country to Sopik. Beyond that town the road is, or was until quite recently, one-way, and reports of metalling are unconfirmed. After reaching Konispol the road ends, and tracks lead over the Greek frontier to the small port of Saiada.

Route 28. MILE 41¾ ON ROUTE 17-STRUGA: 10-12 miles.

This is the natural way into south Yugoslavia from central Albania. It leaves Route 17 near the Q. e Thanës, and continues north generally parallel to, but well above, Lake Ochrida until it descends to the plain of the Black Drin and reaches Struga. The first half of the road is hilly with many winding gradients, the second passes over marshy ground.

In July 1942 the road was reported to be broad and asphalted, but the report was unconfirmed; it is certainly two-way and metalled.

It is subject to snow-blocks in winter about Q. e Thanës. Gradients as steep as 1 in 15 are known and some may be steeper.

Route 29. STRUGA-DEBAR-PESHKOPI: 42½ miles.

As far as Debar, and 2 miles beyond, this road is not within the pre-war boundaries of Albania, but in the area added by the Axis Powers during the war. From Struga the road runs north, first over flat open country, then along the narrow valley of the Black Drin keeping close to the west bank of the river. It crosses the Drin 28 miles below Struga and soon after divides into two branches. The first branch, bearing north-east, continues up the valley of the Radika. The second, bearing north, leaves the valley and rises to Debar. Thereafter, it continues north on the foothills to the east of the Black Drin valley and so to Peshkopi. The road was used by German mechanized forces in 1941, and is believed to be in reasonably good condition. It is, almost certainly, standard two-way.

There are many small bridges over tributaries of the Drin, and an important bridge over the river itself, but no details are available.

Itinerary

<i>Distance in miles</i>		<i>Height in feet</i>	<i>Route</i>	<i>Distance in kilometres</i>	
0	42½	2,280	STRUGA.	0	68.0
2½	39½	..	VRANIŠTE. Fertile ground gently rising to	4.6	63.4
5½	37	..	VELEŠTE. Road crosses Dupni, tributary of the Drin.	8.4	59.6
7½	34½	..	Road leaves plain and descends gradually through wooded mountains to narrow valley of the Drin. Mountains 1,000 feet above road on either hand.	12.2	55.8
11½	30½	..	GLOBOCIČA.	19.0	49.0
13½	28½	..	NEREŽI 1½ miles to west of road.	22.0	46.0
16½	25½	..	Road crosses Lenište, tributary of the Drin.	26.9	41.1
18½	23½	..	Bridge over Drenočka Reka, another tributary.	30.3	37.7
21½	21	1,840	Bridge over Crvenica.	34.4	33.6
28½	13½	1,640	Bridge over Black Drin.	46.0	22.0
30½	11½	2,100	DEBAR.	49.0	19.0
35	7½	..	MAQELLARË. Road junction to Shëpenzë. 9 miles (Route 32).	56.0	12.0
37½	5	2,070	HERBEL.	60.2	7.8
42½	0	2,051	PESHKOPI.	68.0	0

Route 30. KUKËS (Route 5)–BICAJ–PESHKOPI (Routes 12 and 29): 37 miles.

It is uncertain whether this road is complete throughout its length. In 1940 it was complete as far as Bicaj and for 5 miles north of Peshkopi; a pack-horse track joined these two points. Since then much may have been done, especially under German direction; for an all-weather motorable road between Kukës and Peshkopi is important.

The road is two-way as far as Bicaj (8½ miles). From there southwards it may follow either bank of the Drin, but in both cases many streams would have to be crossed.

Route 31. SCUTARI–PULAJ: 15 miles.

This is the only road serving the little harbour of Pulaj at the mouth of the Boyana. The road crosses very swampy country and unless it has been embanked in recent years it is useless in winter. It leaves the Scutari–Durazzo road (Route 7) about 2 miles from Scutari.

Route 32. BURREL–KLOS–ZERQAN–SHËPENZË: 21 miles.

This road is reported to have been completed recently. Starting from Burrel it ascends the valley of the Mat to Klos (1,700 ft.), where it is joined by Route 37 from Tirana. It then strikes east, probably following an old mule-track down the valley of L. i Bulqizës, through the village of Zerqan, and so to Shëpenzë. At Shëpenzë it is joined by Route 36 from Librazhd to Maqellarë. In 1938 there was a good natural surface as far as Klos. In 1943 the road was said to be fit for wheeled traffic throughout.

Route 33. ELBASAN–GRAMSH–MALIQ: about 58 miles.

It has been reported that this road is complete throughout, but information received as late as April 1944 is not conclusive. Work has been in progress at both ends for some time. The Elbasan–Gramsh section (22 miles) and some 15 miles westwards from Maliq are certainly finished. It is uncertain which trace the complete road follows or will follow, but recent Italian maps show it to be wholly aligned in the Devoll valley.

Route 34. LUSHNJE (Route 9)–BELSH–BEJLIK (Route 33): about 20 miles.

This route has been projected and some 10–12 miles of narrow

road have been constructed westward from Bejlik. When completed the new road will shorten the distance between Valona and Elbasan.

Route 35. FIER—PORT SEMAN (SKELE E SEMANIT): $10\frac{1}{2}$ miles.

According to a report of May 1943 a new road was then being built over swampy ground between Fier and Port Seman. It is not known whether it has been completed. The original track between the two places was said to be passable for light motor traffic but only in dry weather. In winter it was a mere quagmire between Hoxharë and Port Seman.

Route 36. LIBRAZHD (Route 17)—SHËPENZË—MAQELLARË (Route 29): $50\frac{1}{4}$ miles.

This important road strikes north and north-east from mile 15 on Route 17, crosses the Çermenikë and Gollobordë highlands, descends to the valley of the Drin, and follows the left bank of that river.

At mile $38\frac{1}{2}$ there is a connexion to Route 29. Until 1940 the road was narrow and difficult, especially in winter, when it was sometimes impassable. Now it seems to be standard two-way, with a good but not asphalted surface. There is a steep ascent to, and descent from, Q. e Shkalës (mile $11\frac{1}{2}$) and a steep descent from Q. e Lajshit (mile 30). The gradients may be as steep as 1 in 10. The road was originally carried over numerous streams and torrents by small-span wooden bridges which were constantly washed away. Whether new and modern bridges have been constructed is not known.

Itinerary

Distance in miles		Height in feet	Route	Distance in kilometres	
0	$50\frac{1}{4}$	984	LIBRAZHD.	0	81.0
$11\frac{1}{2}$	$38\frac{3}{4}$	4,130	Summit of Q. e Shkalës.		
12	$38\frac{1}{2}$	..	LLANGË to left of road. Steep gradients. Road crosses tributary of Zall i Okshtunit in a hairpin bend.	19.4	61.6
22	$28\frac{1}{2}$	4,600	Old frontier post. Road enters valley of Zall i Okshtunit.	35.6	45.4
$23\frac{3}{4}$	$26\frac{1}{2}$	3,570	STEBLEVË. Road runs generally north and ascends to	38.3	42.7

<i>Distance in miles</i>		<i>Height in feet</i>	<i>Route</i>	<i>Distance in kilometres</i>	
27	23 $\frac{1}{4}$	4,100	KLENJË. Snow blocks about here in winter.	43·3	37·7
29 $\frac{1}{4}$	21	4,500	Summit of Q. e Lajshit pass. Road descends steeply to	47·2	33·8
32	18 $\frac{1}{4}$	3,080	OSTREN I VOGËL. Ostren i math is in the hills to the west. Road in valley of Prr. i Ostrenit.	51·7	29·3
35 $\frac{1}{2}$	14 $\frac{3}{4}$	2,540	LLADOMERICË.	57·1	23·9
38 $\frac{1}{2}$	11 $\frac{3}{4}$	..	Frontier post and road junction with Route 29. This gives an alternate and shorter route (via Debar) to Maqellarë. Road follows left bank of the Black Drin.	61·8	19·2
42	8 $\frac{1}{4}$	..	GJORICË. Road turns west away from Drin.	67·4	13·6
43 $\frac{3}{4}$	6 $\frac{1}{2}$	1,640	SHËPENZË. Road junction Route 32.	70·3	10·7
50 $\frac{1}{4}$	0	2,000 (approx.)	MAQELLARË. Road junction Route 29.	81·0	0

Route 37. TIRANA-SHËNGJERGJ-KLOS: 28 miles.

A recently completed road concerning which there are few details. The road reached Shëngjergj in 1940 by way of Q. e Priskës (3,150 ft.). It joins Route 32 at Klos.

Route 38. 59 MILES ON ROUTE 7 TO TIRANA: 14 miles.

This road has been designed to by-pass Vorrë. Some work has been done on it, but its present state is unknown.

Route 39. BERAT-ÇOROVODË: 31 miles.

Construction of this road was reported in progress in 1940, but no information is available as to its present state.

Route 40. 3 miles south of FIER on Route 9. TEPELENË: 45 miles.

Formerly a fair road to Ballsh (12 miles), but how far it has been extended in the direction of Tepelenë is uncertain.

Route 41. KORÇË-FRONTIER-RESAN: 41 miles.

This road branches north from Route 24, 7-8 miles from Korçë, crosses the Devoll river half a mile farther on, and rises abruptly

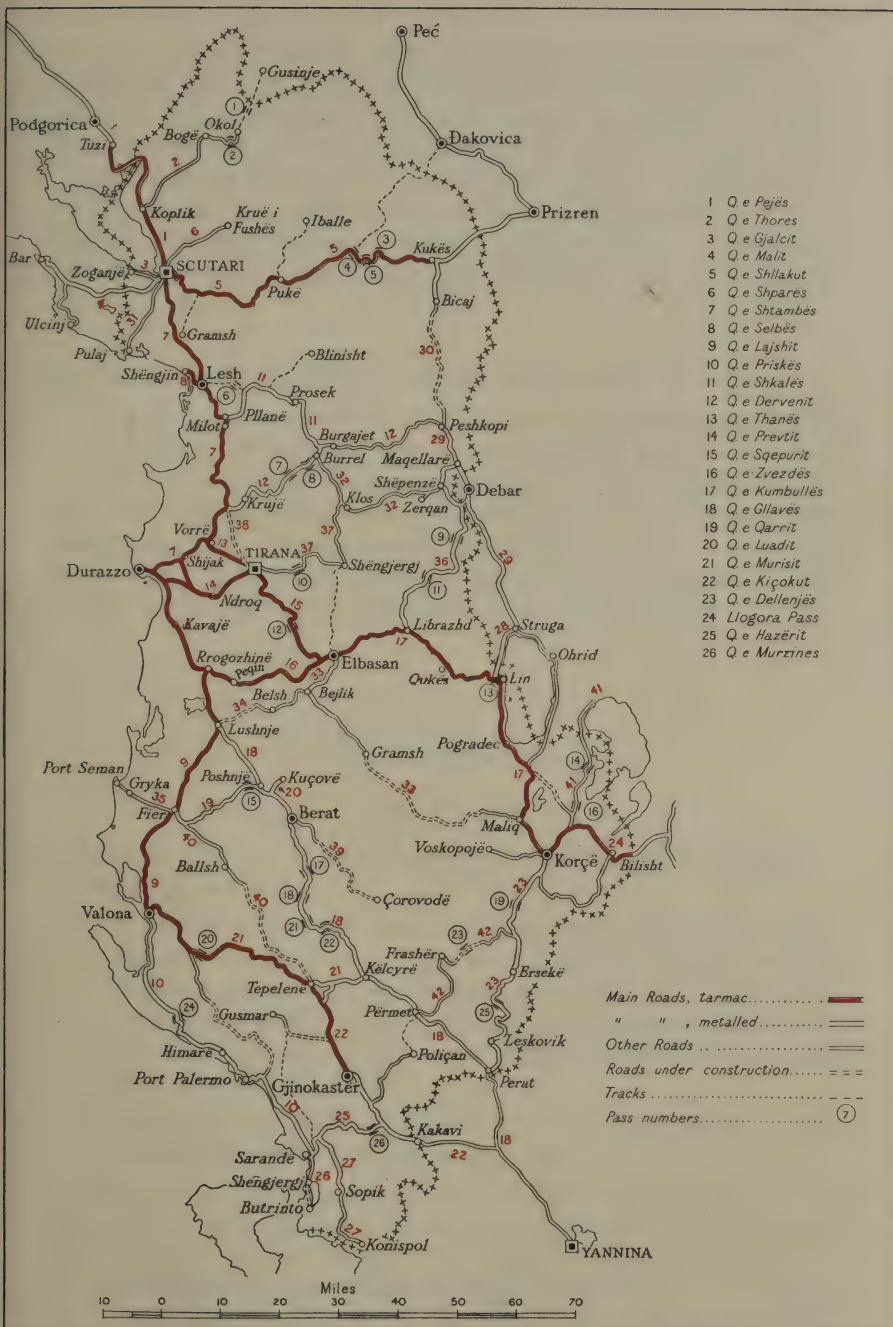


FIG. 53. Routes and passes. The brown numbers refer to the various routes in the itinerary

to Q. e Zvezdës (about 2,800 ft.) between the Mal i thatë. It continues to Q. e Prevtit (3,580 ft.), then drops rapidly to the western shore of Lake Prespa. It passes the village of Goricë and reaches the old Albanian frontier at 25 miles. Resan is 15 miles from the frontier. The road is narrow, but reported to be 'just two-way', with a loose metal surface up to the frontier. Precise details of bridges are not available. There are sharp turns and stiff gradients in the mountainous region, which is liable to be blocked by snowdrifts.

Route 42. PËRMET-QAFËZEZI: mile 38 on Route 23: (25 miles).

By-pass from Tepelenë to Korçë; poor surface and single track. The road diverges left from the highway to Perat and rises steeply, then crosses a branch of the Lomnicë, and a pass in M. Kokojka into the headwaters of the Lengaricë for Frashër (1,000 ft.). It is projected, and partly built, through the Qafë e Dellenjës (4,300 ft.) into the upper valley of the Osum, and turns east at Qafëzezi, crossing another headstream of the Osum, to join the Perat-Korçë highway.

II. RAILWAYS

(See Fig. 54)

THERE are but two short and light railways at present existing in Albania. These are:

1. A 19-mile Decauville line from Selenicë to Skele, the port of Valona. Its purpose is to serve the asphalt export from the Selenicë mines, but it carries passenger traffic also. At Skele it connects with the eastern jetty, and, in connexion with the port service, there are several minor extensions of this Decauville line. (*See 'Ports', p. 280.*)
2. A quite recent light railway between Lekaj and Shkozët, which has been in military use during the war.

The railways of Yugoslavia and of Greece pass to the east of Albania, and in connexion with them the future railways of Albania were planned by the Italians. The Belgrade-Salonica and Veles-Florina-Athens lines are standard gauge, whilst a 2-foot gauge line runs from Skoplje to Ohrid. The projected Albanian lines were to be

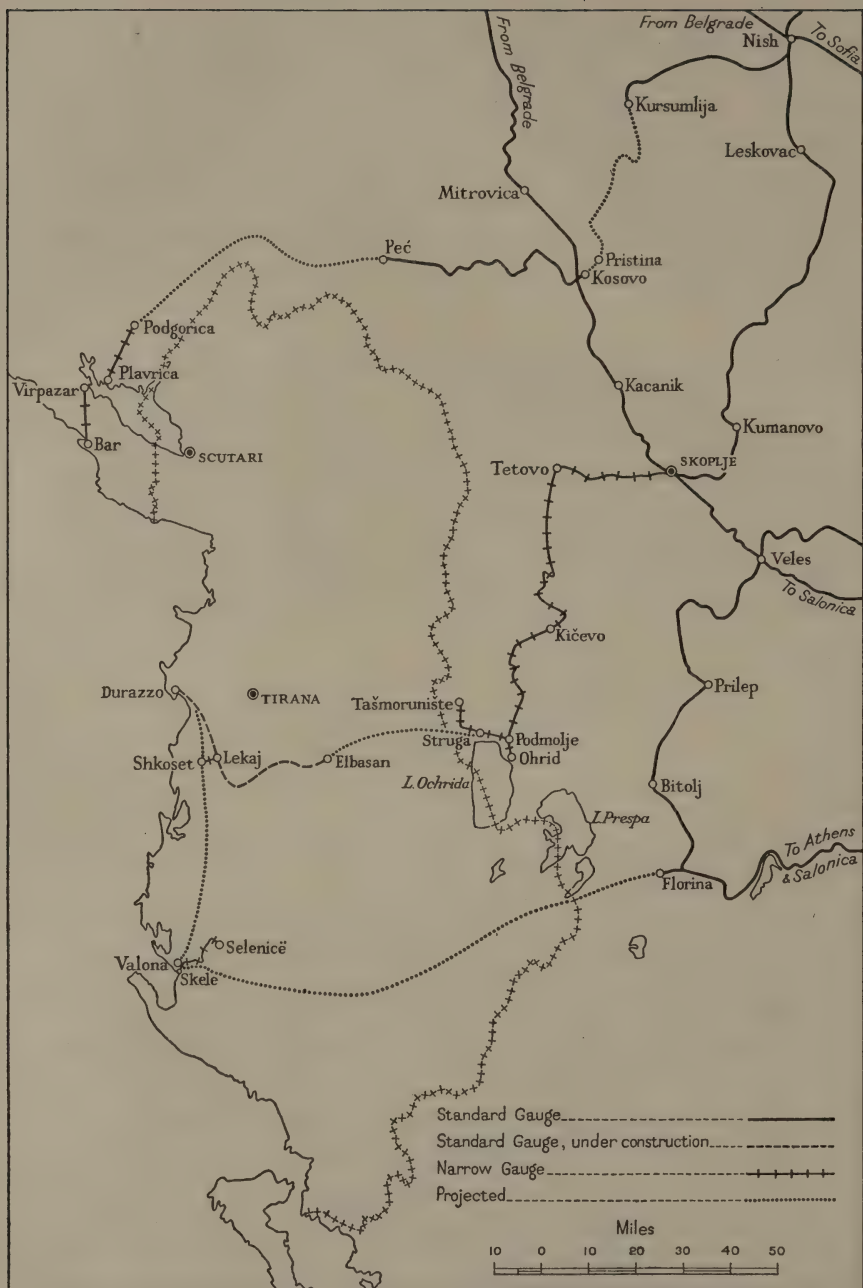


FIG. 54. Railways

standard gauge and were to link Durazzo, through Elbasan, with Ohrid; to connect Durazzo to Valona, and Valona, through Korçë, to Florina. So far the only construction actually completed is the earth-work of the Durazzo-Elbasan portion, 52 miles long. This line passes through Kavajë, and then follows the Shkumbî valley through Peqin to Tirana and Elbasan. Tunnels are complete and all bridges have been built, but the Italians took up what line had been laid, and bricked up the tunnels, about six months before the armistice.

Surveys for the projected stretches, Elbasan-Ohrid, Durazzo-Valona, and Valona-Florina were in progress at the outbreak of war.

III. AIRWAYS

IN 1939 civil aviation, centring on Tirana, provided connexions to Scutari, Durazzo, Valona, Gjinokastër, Korçë, and Kukës. At these places airfields or landing-grounds of more or less permanent construction existed.

A service, thrice weekly, connected Rome-Tirana-Salonica-Sofia and Bucharest; whilst a daily service, starting from Tirana, reached Scutari, Podgorica and Cetinje.

The Italian occupation and the subsequent war with Greece have, no doubt, resulted in many emergency landing-grounds of no particular future importance.

The more important airfields and landing-grounds are listed below:

Airfields

<i>At</i>	<i>Position</i>	<i>Height (in feet)</i>	<i>Access to or by Routes</i>
1 Berat/Kuçovë . . .	40° 46' 45" N. 19° 53' 55" E.	160	18, 20, 39.
2 Durazzo/Shijak . . .	41° 19' 50" N. 19° 32' 50" E.	100	7, 9, 13, 14.
3 Scutari/Koplik . . .	42° 11' 45" N. 19° 28' 10" E.	200	1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7.
4 Tirana	41° 19' 55" N. 19° 48' 00" E.	300	13, 14, 15.
5 Valona	40° 28' 15" N. 19° 28' 30" E.	(A few feet)	1, 10, 21.

Landing-grounds

<i>At</i>	<i>Position</i>	<i>Height (in feet)</i>	<i>Access to or by Routes</i>
1 Berat . . .	40° 44' 35" N. 19° 56' 00" E.	160	18, 20, 39.
2 Durazzo . . .	41° 19' 35" N. 19° 26' 45" E.	(A few feet)	7, 9, 13, 14.
3 Gjinokastër . . .	40° 05' 25" N. 20° 09' 25" E.	750	22.
4 Korçë(north)emergency	40° 38' 30" N. 20° 47' 25" E.	2,800	17, 23, 24, 41.
5 Korçë (south) . . .	40° 35' 50" N. 20° 45' 50" E.	2,970	
6 Kukës . . .	42° 02' 10" N. 20° 25' 25" E.	1,150	
7 Peshkopi . . .	41° 42' 15" N. 20° 22' 20" E.	1,500	12, 29, 30, 36.
8 Scutari/Shtoj . . .	42° 06' 45" N. 19° 33' 10" E.	140	1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7.
9 Valona(south)emergency	40° 26' 00" N. 19° 30' 10" E.	6	9, 10, 21.

Seaplane Alighting Areas

<i>At</i>	<i>Position</i>	<i>Access to or by Routes</i>
1 Butrinto (lake) . . .	39° 44' N.	By tracks 26, 27, and 21.
2 Durazzo (harbour) . . .	41° 17' N. 19° 27' E.	
3 Valona (east side of Bay) . . .	40° 26' N. 19° 29' E.	9, 10, 21.

IV. POSTS AND SIGNALS

Postal Service

In 1937 Albania had but fifty-three post offices.

Telegraphs

The principal towns and military stations are connected by telegraph, but there were, in 1939, only fifty-four telegraph offices open to the public. Airline is almost universal, for underground cable hardly exists. There is little uniformity in kind and size of wire, or in the height and diameter of the rough wooden poles. The instruments in use are either Austrian in the north, or Italian, in the south.

Connexions to the surrounding countries are between:

Gjinokastër and Yannina.

Korçë and Salonica.

Tirana and Debar.

Scutari and Cetinje.

Telephones. (See Figs. 55 and 56.)

There are two distinct systems; the state-run public service and that of the gendarmerie, and the latter was, before the war, the more comprehensive and the more efficient.

The state service has connexions to Yugoslavia and Greece, and, in 1939, consisted of fifty-six hand-operated exchanges and one automatic (in Tirana). There were just over 1,000 subscribers and forty-six public telephones. Very few private persons had telephones, and directories were only issued for the Durazzo and Tirana exchanges just before the war. The only purely telephonic lines were two between Tirana and Durazzo. In other cases telegraph lines were used.

Cables

The main cables are four in number:

1. Durazzo-Brindisi.
2. Durazzo-Bari.
3. Valona-Saseno Island-Brindisi.
4. Valona-Otranto.

There are, in addition, two local cables to Corfu.

Teleprinter apparatus has been installed at Durazzo, Valona, and Tirana.

Radio

In 1939 there were four state-managed radio-telegraph stations for both receiving and transmitting, whilst other small wireless stations were reported as under construction. In that same year an Albanian Broadcasting Corporation (E.S.A.R.) was formed, but was put under strict Italian control. There was an efficient short-wave station at Tirana, but, in 1940, it was decided to replace it by a medium-wave, 50 kW., station, which, however, does not appear to be in action yet. There was also a long wave (3,000 metres) station which was dismantled as the aerials were too close to the airfield.

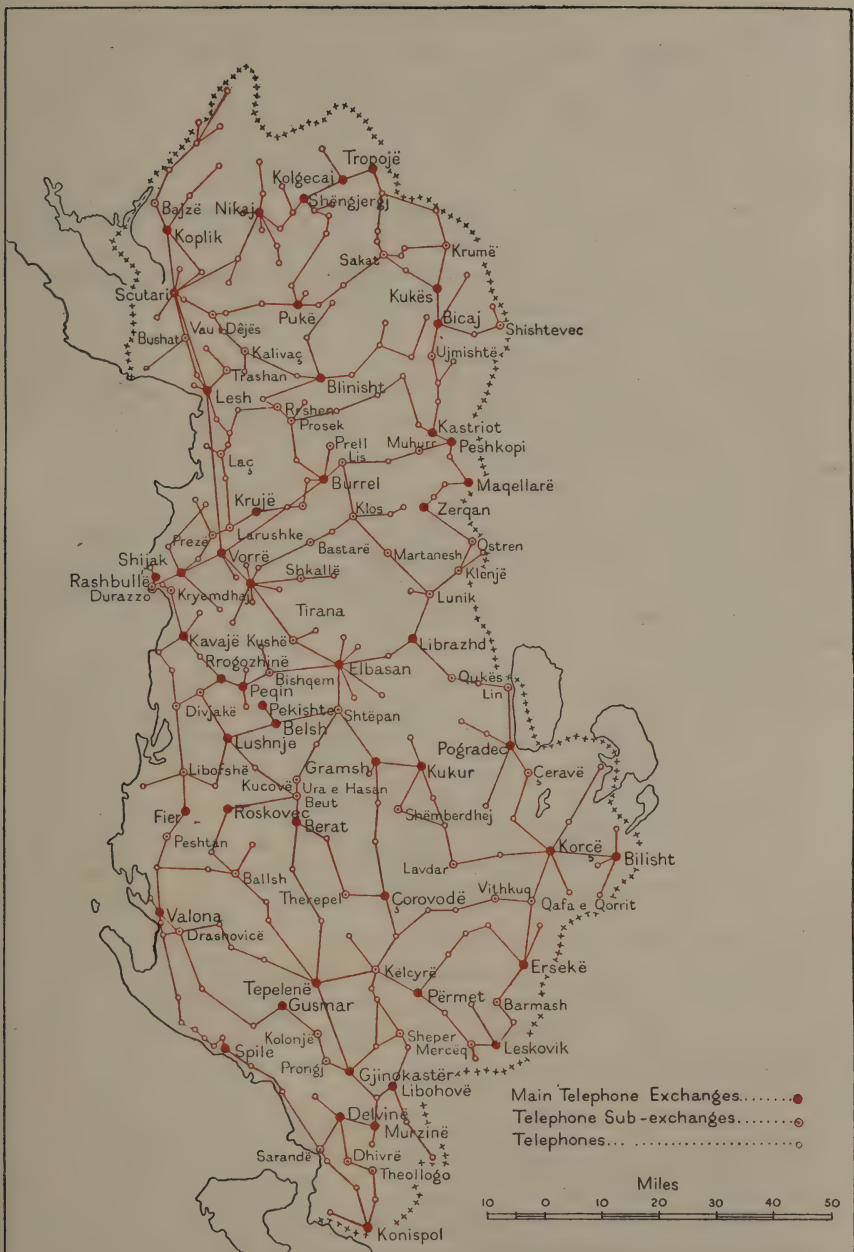


FIG. 56. Telephones: The Gendarmerie System

The following have been reported as fixed stations:

1. BUTRINTO BAY, $39^{\circ} 43' 40''$ N., $20^{\circ} 00' 25''$ E.

No details available.

- 2-3. DURAZZO

2. Nearly 3 miles from Durazzo on the old Durazzo-Tirana road.
375 kc/s. Issues meteorological bulletins.

3. 300 yards west of harbour, on south edge of the town. A naval installation. Slender mast about 60 feet high.

4. SARANDË

In the ruined monastery on the summit of the hill just north of the road leading eastwards from the east end of the town.

No details available.

- 5, 6, and 7. SASENO ISLAND

These are, respectively, on the col between the two summits, at the north end of the Island, and in Porto San Nicolo. The former is said to be a large station of modern type, and the latter issues meteorological data and navigation warnings.

No details are available.

- 8, 9, and 10. TIRANA

8. The short-wave broadcasting station referred to above.

Position $41^{\circ} 20' 20''$ N., $19^{\circ} 47' 40''$ E.

Frequency: 4,880—15,630 kc/s.

Power: 3kW.

- 9 and 10. Airfield stations—WNW. (2 miles) and WSW. (1 mile) of the town. No details known.

- 11 and 12. VALONA

Two stations have been reported, but possibly only one exists.

Both are said to be between Valona and Skele, but nearer the latter and fairly close to the seafront.

Additional stations have been reported at:

Cape Rodoni (Lesh).

Saseno Island, extreme north.

Valona Airfield.

There may also be broadcasting stations, of small power, at Peshkopi, Korçë, and Gjinokastër.

In 1938 it was estimated that between 3,000 and 4,000 radio receiving sets were in use and sales were increasing.

CHAPTER XIV

MAPS AND AUTHORITIES

TOPOGRAPHICAL AND GEOGRAPHICAL MAPS

THE map in the end pocket has been compiled from recent Italian surveys and the names are spelt in conformity with the rulings of the Permanent Committee on Geographical Names. In scale (10 miles to the inch) it is too small to give much local detail, but, eked out by the map-figures in the text, serves to illustrate the subject-matter of this volume.

There is, at last, a good topographical survey of Albania, but only a few copies, officially reproduced, have reached this country. This survey is Italian, and the Italians are good map-makers, but it suffers from the fact that the place-names are often spelt Italian-fashion. The largest scale of reproduction is 1/50,000, but the material is embodied also on a series, which seems to be incomplete, at 1/100,000, and upon a really good 1/500,000 touring map. There must have been an initial triangulation, but whether that has been adjusted to the good Yugoslav system which covers the areas north and east is not known. Perhaps some spirit-levelling has been done, but that is not, as yet, confirmed. Longitudes are from the meridian of Tirana ($19^{\circ} 46' 45''$ east of Greenwich). Future maps of Albania will certainly be based upon this Italian material, which air photography entirely endorses.

The history of Albanian mapping is as follows:

- (1) Previous to the outbreak of war in 1914 the only map of real value was the Austro-Hungarian General Staff 1/200,000 series. This was derived from a compiled series of traverses controlled by a few astronomical positions. There were many blanks in the sheets and it has since been proved to be very inaccurate.
- (2) During that war the Austrians surveyed the greater part of western Albania, the sheets being issued on the scale and in the sheet-lines of their National 1/75,000 series. But, except for the coastal area, the sheets were very provisional. In the area Valona-Lake Ochrida the Italians produced a 1/25,000 'Schizzo Topografico', and the French, from ground and air survey, a 1/20,000 and 1/50,000.

- (3) The boundary of Albania was surveyed in 1922-1925; the resultant maps covering a considerable belt on either side of the boundary were on the scale of 1/50,000. These boundary maps rested on extensions of the Austrian, Serb, and Greek triangulations, and the topography was thorough and careful.
- (4) In 1928 there was issued by the German Geographical Society a map of Albania on 1/200,000 covering all Albania in two sheets. It was compiled by a Dr. H. Louis from all the above-mentioned maps and his own and other individual surveys. This has since been published, with revised communications, by the G.S.G.S. and is the best general pre-war map. Louis's maps are more careful and correct in the spelling of place-names than any others which appeared before the present war. The longitudes are given from Ferro, 17° 40' west of Greenwich.
- (5) The Greek 1/100,000, which covers the area south of 41° 30' is derived mainly from the Austrian 1/75,000 and 1/200,000.
- (6) The Yugoslav 1/100,000, covering all but the south-east corner, i.e. south of 40° 3' and east of 20°, is derived from the boundary map, the various war series, and Louis's map.

G.S.G.S. maps and the International 1/M are, cartographically, excellent, but antedate both a reliable survey and a consistent spelling of place-names.

The 'Sofia', N.K-34, sheet of the International 1/M covers all of Albania save the extreme southern tip, which is upon 'Athens', N. J-34.

The 1/500,000 Europe (Air) series cuts Albania into halves. The northern portion is upon sheet 42/18, the southern on 40/18.

An admirably clear map is the 1/250,000 G.S.G.S. 'Balkan' series, and this is the smallest scale at which topographical features of Albania can be clearly shown. The relevant sheets are:

N.

0684	1884
0672	1872
0660	1884

As general maps of the Balkans the following are useful:

- a. G.S.G.S. 1/4M. Sheet 31 A. Mediterranean.
- b. Bartholomew. 1/2M. Italy and the Balkans.

Upon all the maps mentioned, save Louis's two sheets, place-names are the worst feature. Even Louis's careful mapping appears

to err in applying certain Albanian forms and endings to all names, sometimes without justification. In the south Greek names have been used freely on most maps, along the seaboard Italian names predominated, whilst Turkish, and sometimes Serb, names have also appeared. As the Introduction and Appendix I make clear, it is only recently that a common Albanian alphabet has been accepted officially and no Albanian mapping service has, as yet, been organized. During the war, however, British map-makers have made successful efforts to record, and embody, officially correct Albanian names and spellings. With the ready assistance of the Permanent Committee on Geographical Names, this handbook and its maps endeavour to follow these recent improvements. Whilst, however, spelling generally should follow Albanian custom, the long sea-history of the Adriatic must mean that certain names of Italian origin will remain, at least for a time, in common usage. Such are Corfu, Scutari, Durazzo, and Valona, whilst to rename Lakes Ochrida and Prespa would be to prejudice the equal claims of Serbian and Greek.

Geological Maps

Geologische Karte von Albanien, 1:200,000, by Dr. Ernst Nowack (1928), 2 sheets. (Based on a survey for the Albanian Ministry of Public Works and Agriculture.) Reproduced by Geographical Section, General Staff, with legend in English, No. 4418^A, 1943.

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Maps, diagrams, and line drawings have been prepared by the drawing-office of the Oxford Sub-Centre under the direction of K. W. Hartland (late Survey of Northern Rhodesia).

Much assistance has been given by the War Office and the Meteorological Office. The Permanent Committee on Geographical Names has been untiring in its advice and personal assistance.

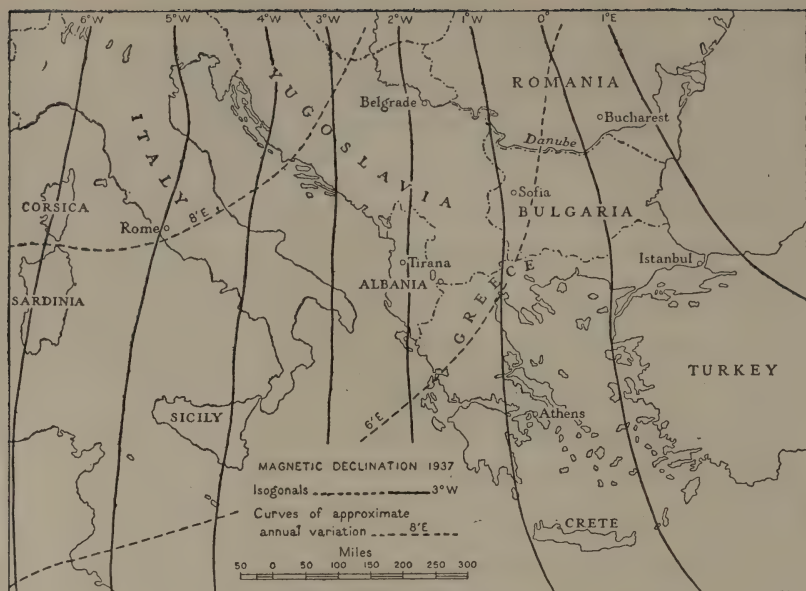


FIG. 57. *Magnetic Variation*



FIG. 58. *Time Zones*

Magnetic Variation (Fig. 57)

There has been no magnetic survey in detail. Broadly speaking, however, the isogonals of Fig. 57 may be accepted.

Time (Fig. 58)

Albanian time is one hour behind Greenwich, but as neighbouring countries may, possibly, be in question, an extract from a time-zone chart is given in Fig. 58.

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The bibliography which follows is far from exhaustive. It is, however, doubtful how far it is helpful to quote books which reflect aspects already out of date in so swiftly changing a land. The works of Miss Durham and of J. Swire give an intimate picture of the life of the people, and many good descriptions of the country. For those who can read German, H. Louis's *Albanien: Eine Landeskunde* is an admirably thorough and enlightening physical description, and includes much of value on plant-life. For a student of language Mr. Mann's grammar and dictionary, Mrs. Hasluck's *Albanian-English Reader*, and the P.C.G.N. Gazetteer are available and indeed necessary.

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APPENDIX I

THE ALBANIAN LANGUAGE

THE Albanian language, one of the least known in Europe, is the only known survivor of the Indo-European group usually referred to as 'Illyrian', and sometimes as Phrygo-Thracian. Its history is obscure, though a few isolated words occur in the works of some ancient Greek writers. The only other sources of ancient Albanian are early place-names and personal names, most of which have been collected by Hans Krahe in two works: *Die alten balkanillyrischen geographischen Namen*, C. Winter, Heidelberg, 1925, and *Lexicon altillyrischer Personennamen*, by the same publisher, 1929.

Ancient Dacia, now Romania, once spoke a language similar to Albanian, and many Daco-Albanian words survive in the Latin language now spoken in that country. Thus *mal*, Rom. 'shore', is Alb. 'mountain'; *buză* is Albanian *buzë* 'lip'; *bucurie* 'joy' (a word forming part of the name Bucharest) is Albanian *bukuri* 'beauty'; Rom. *bucătar* 'baker' is Albanian *buktar*, from *bukë* 'bread'.

Apart from these meagre sources of material for comparative study we find relics of a very early settlement of Illyrian-speakers in southern Italy, especially in Calabria. A few tombstones and several coins have revealed a language which was spoken there even at the time of the Roman Empire. Here is a sentence in that, as yet, uninterpreted language:

Klaohizis thotoria mar ta pi vastei basta veinan aran.

It is still a question as to whether many of the names of mythical beings in Classical Greek have Illyrian affinities. It is, indeed, strange that Albanian, a sister language of Latin and Greek, and a near relation of Slavonic, has not left any written literature earlier than 1555, the date of Buzuk's *Litany*.

Don Gjon Buzuk's *Litany*, of which only one copy is extant (in the library of the Vatican), is written in an archaic form of Geg, the northern dialect of Albania, and contains several words which are now obsolete, and are therefore of some historical interest. The grammar is fuller than that of modern Albanian. The alphabet seems to have been invented by the writer and is based on Italian, with some additional characters to represent sounds peculiar to Albanian. There is some reason to believe that Buzuk was a priest of Scutari, an ancient stronghold of the Roman Catholic faith.

The existence of a printing-press at Voskopojë near Korça or Koritsa in the sixteenth century would lead us to believe that more Albanian literature was produced at this period than actually exists. A collection of religious didactic writings was published towards the end of the

century by Matranga, and these may have been printed here, as they are in the Tosk or Southern dialect of Albanian. All other works of the period have been lost.

The following century saw the publication of Bardhi's *Albanian and Latin Dictionary* (1635). In 1664 appeared Don Pjetër Budi's volume of didactic verse on Biblical themes. Monsignor Pjetër Bogdani, who was Bishop of Scutari in 1656 and Archbishop of Skoplje (Shkup) in 1677, published a volume of didactic essays in which Christian and pagan materials are curiously interwoven, adding some excellent lyrical verse.

In the south of Italy there has been a considerable colony of Albanians from Tosknija (southern Albania), refugees from the Turkish invasions. One member of this colony, Julius Variboba, was born in the province of Cosenza in southern Italy in the year 1725. He gave religious instruction at a seminary in his home town, and later went to Rome, where he wrote a 'Life of the Virgin Mary' in his native Albanian tongue. This religious epic was published in 1762 and is of a high idyllic quality, with touchingly homely details about the life of Christ. The metre is that of the popular heroic verse still current in northern Albania and Montenegro, and used with such effect by the late Father George Fishta in his epic series 'Lute of the Mountains'.

The ruthless attempts made by Turkey to suppress Albanian, and her increasing fear of anti-Turkish propaganda in Albanian schools, were mainly responsible for the literary barrenness of the eighteenth and early nineteenth centuries. Albanian schools were closed; the teaching of Albanian was a punishable offence. Yet all Turkey's attempts to suppress Albanian literary activity only served to drive the movement underground. Continuity was secretly maintained on Albanian soil by the Jesuits of Scutari, but it was mainly in the towns outside Albania where the spark of Albanian culture was kept alive. At a time when the homeland was steeped in the darkness of ignorance owing to incessant wars, invasions, internal strife, and political rivalry, lack of central control, of schools, of communications, and of economic stability, literary activity struggled on in Cairo, Alexandria, Vienna, Belgrade, Sofia, Bucharest, Constanza, Athens, Monastir, Yannina, Prizren, and in Italy and Sicily.

MODERN LITERATURE

Spiro Dine (1845-1922) was an exile. At the age of 3 he was taught to read and write by a priest at Vithkuqi. At 20 he fled to Egypt, where he joined a colony of Albanians who had found life at home intolerable. He urged them to send him as many Albanian folk-tales, verses, proverbs, and other folk-lore as they could recollect. The resulting book, published years later at Sofia, is a curious medley of folk-lore and original compositions, and is entitled *Waves of the Sea*. It is over 850 pages in length. The work has often been criticized for the varied quality of the material

contained in it, yet it was an honest attempt on the part of a patriot to rescue the literary treasures of the homeland from oblivion.

Thimi Mitko of Korça (Koritsa) was more successful in this respect. He published a collection of folk verse, tales, and proverbs under the title *The Albanian Bee* at Alexandria in 1878. Many of his verses were embodied in Spiro Dine's *Waves of the Sea*. One of the most fascinating motifs of Albanian folk-lore, the quest of the Beauty of Earth, is done full justice in Mitko's collection. The central theme is that of a young man who risks life and limb to free and win a Beauty who is kept in an almost inaccessible place. Those that fail forfeit their lives. The motif is a nature myth of the Sleeping Beauty type. The Sun, by bringing his gold, frees the Earth from the dungeon of Sleep and Darkness.

Naim H. Frashëri was an illustrious member of a family of active patriots. Born at Frashëri in southern Albania in 1846 he learnt Turkish, Persian, and Arabic from a local teacher. He was never physically strong. He lost both parents at the age of 15, and went with his five brothers and two sisters to Yannina in 1865, where he attended a school. It was here that he published some original verse in the Persian language. He was later appointed censor at the Ottoman Ministry of Education at Istanbul, but continued to write mostly in Albanian, and was a champion of Albanian education. He was so popular at Istanbul that the Government allowed him to bring out an Albanian periodical called *Drita* ('Light') and to open an Albanian school at Korça—the first Albanian school for centuries. It was later suppressed by the Turkish authorities. Among other things Naim Frashëri wrote a long Skanderbeg poem in epic style, several school works, a pastoral poem, a poem called 'Flowers of Spring', a *Universal History*, and a handbook on the Bektashi movement.

Konstantin Kristoforidhi, another outstanding writer of the nineteenth century, was born at Elbasan in 1827 and died there in 1895. In a way Kristoforidhi was fortunate in having Elbasan as his home town. It is a small town deeply set amid the high mountains of central Albania, where a type of Albanian is spoken which is intelligible to Northerners and Southerners alike. The purity of its pronunciation and grammar have led to its acceptance as the standard speech of Albania, and it is recognized as such by the Albanian Ministry of Education. The dialect has, however, been much enriched by the addition of thousands of words and phrases from the other dialects.

Kristoforidhi was a staunch patriot. Like Naim Frashëri he studied at Yannina, and there conceived the idea of writing a large Albanian and Greek Dictionary, the first since Bardhi, and a valuable work of reference for dialectical forms and variants. Each entry was amply illustrated with phrases. Unfortunately, however, Albanian had no universally recognized spelling in Kristoforidhi's day, and he, like other writers of his time, had to invent a spelling of his own. For the Dictionary he used a mixture of Latin and Greek types, whereas for his translation of the New

Testament and Psalms, done at the instance of the British and Foreign Bible Society, he chose the phonetic Latin characters proposed by Lepsius. These texts still constitute the best phonetic record of Albanian ever made by a native.

THE BATTLE OF THE ALPHABETS

Altogether Albanian has been printed in about twenty different alphabets. Small wonder that so little Albanian was taught, or that so few Albanians bothered to read and write their own language. Towards the end of last century the question of an Albanian alphabet reached a critical stage, and scarcely any two writers used the same spelling.

With the permission of the Turkish Government, Sami Frashëri, brother of the famous Naim, John Vretos, and Pashko Vasa launched an alphabet of their own invention. It consisted mainly of Latin characters, but these were eked out by fanciful characters to represent sounds peculiar to Albanian. The result was an even script, somewhat bizarre, but free of diacritical marks. To those that used it it became known as the Istanbul Alphabet and consisted of 36 letters. Its chief drawbacks were that characters had to be specially cut if printing was to be done, while foreigners could not readily read the script without first taking a course in phonetics.

The Istanbul Alphabet flourished only among Tosks (Southern Albanians). Lumo Skendo (Mid'hat Frashëri), G. Qirias, K. Luarasi, and others brought out an 'Albanian Year Book' in Sofia printed in this alphabet. The first of these appeared in 1896. Lumo Skendo went farther than this. He wrote a number of small educational text-books with the sole idea of spreading literacy among exiled Albanians. By his incessant propaganda he caused the Istanbul Alphabet to be adopted by the Albanian colonies abroad. An increasingly suspicious government at Istanbul again suppressed the Albanian language at home, and Albanian schools which had enjoyed a short-lived freedom were closed again. The Istanbul alphabet thrived openly in Egypt, Bulgaria, and Romania, but was secretly taught in southern Albania.

Meanwhile the Albanians of Scutari, Gëgs or Northerners, had been using a spelling first devised by a Jesuit priest, Leonardo de Martino, in 1881. This spelling, though less phonetic than that of Istanbul, at least had the advantage of being easily printed. Pairs of consonants were used for single sounds as in English. Schoolbooks, a grammar, a dictionary, Fishta's *Lute of the Highlands*, a *History of Albania*, and several periodicals all appeared in this alphabet, known as the Alphabet of the Union (a patriotic literary and political society). Even the Tosk poet Asdren, author of a collection of lyrical poems called *Rays of the Sun* (Bucharest, 1904), preferred this spelling to that current among his fellow Tosks of the south.

A third rival alphabet appeared at about this time but had only a small following. It was known as the 'Dawn Alphabet' (named after the Dawn

Society), and was based on the spelling of Croat and Czechoslovak. Only about half a dozen schoolbooks were ever printed in this alphabet; a periodical called *Knowledge* failed to popularize it, and within a few years it fell into disuse.

The two remaining alphabets continued to flourish, the Union spelling of the north, with its double characters, and the Istanbul spelling of the south, with its curious phonetic symbols. Much good work was done by the propagators of both spellings. But a clash between the rivals was inevitable.

On 11 November 1908 an All-Albania Congress was held at Monastir to settle once and for all which alphabet should become the national alphabet of Albania. The Union spelling was represented by Father George Fishta and Luigj Gurakuqi; the Croat spelling of the Dawn Society was represented by Andrew Mjeda and Mat Logoreci, while Mid'hat Frashëri (Lumo Skendo) stood for the Istanbul Alphabet. The story goes that one member stood up before the Congress, held up a typewriter, and appealed to all present to support only such a spelling as could be accommodated on its keyboard, thus putting Albanian in line with the culture languages of western Europe.

A commission was appointed to study the question in detail. In the end it was decided to adopt a modified form of the Union spelling, which was to be used concurrently with the Istanbul Alphabet. The latter died a natural death some years later. One of the last works ever to be written in the Istanbul spelling was Lumo Skendo's collection of short stories entitled *Embers and Ashes* (1915).

Before leaving the story of the rival alphabets something should be said of this remarkable writer Lumo Skendo, whose real name is Mid'hat Frashëri. He was a very prolific writer. Besides being a co-founder of the Sofia 'Year Book' above referred to, he founded a periodical called *Knowledge* at Salonica in 1909. He discovered the manuscript of an early Albanian dictionary by Mark Bocari at the National Library in Paris. He is the greatest living authority on the life of Skanderbeg, first King of the Albanians (1404-1467), and has a large private library. Once a Cabinet Minister he became a bookseller in Tirana when Albania was liberated, and retired from literary life. He is said to have led an armed band of partisans at Kruja during the German occupation of Albania.

Within the present century Ernest Koliqi, of Scutari, has written two collections of short stories entitled *Mountain Shadow* and *The Flagseller*, a series of idyllic poems entitled *The Paths of the Seasons*, a dramatic poem called *Skanderbeg's Battlecry*, and a literary-critical work entitled *The Great Italian Poets*. Koliqi is keenly aware of his own people's shortcomings, which he wishes to rectify by means of schools and text-books, but is also appreciative of their outstanding qualities: loyalty, integrity, self-respect, and unbounded hospitality.

Some of the most beautiful lyrics in Albanian literature have been

written by Lasgush Poradeci, a young Tosk poet. Many of his best poems are to be found scattered throughout Albanian periodicals dating back to 1922.

Fan Noli, leader of the unsuccessful Socialist rising in 1924, is the author of a *History of Skanderbeg* and a translator of many of Shakespeare's plays.

Kristo Floqi, a Tosk dramatist, has written a large number of comedies, tragedies, and political-satirical plays, as well as an anthology of verse for schools. His most popular play is perhaps the one entitled *Religion and Nationality*.

Mat Logoreci was a linguist and the author of a two-volume history. He was responsible for bringing many vivid dialect words of his native highlands into current use, and has coined a few words of his own, notably *Bashki* ('Municipality').

K. Çekrezi, who has spent many years in the U.S.A., is the author of a *History of Albania* and an *English-Albanian Dictionary*, and is the editor of a newspaper. He is a graduate of an American university.

In spite of an ever-growing stock of general literature, there is still an acute shortage of specialized literature suitable for higher education. There is no Albanian University, no National Encyclopedia, no National Dictionary, no Albanian Bible.

COMPOSITION OF THE MODERN ALBANIAN LANGUAGE

Albanian, as stated above, is an Indo-European language related to Latin, Greek, Slavonic, and the rest in an approximately equal degree. It is a 'satem-language', i.e. the original palatals *k̑*, *g̑*, and *g̑h* have been kept separate from *k*, *g*, and *gh*, the former having turned to *th*, *dh*, and *dh* respectively. Being Indo-European the language is, of course, related to English as is seen from the following sentence:

For three nights I strewed meal for the mouse, and caught it.

This in Albanian turns out as follows:

Për tri netë shtrova miell për miun, ende e kapa.

Most of the radical words of modern Albanian are of Indo-European origin, and their relation with cognates in other languages can be clearly seen once the phonetic rules are established. The fact that Albanian *h* corresponds to English *sh* (or *sk* in Scandinavian loan-words) demonstrates that Alb. *hudh* 'I fling' is the English word *shoot*, *halë* 'scale' is English *scale*, *Hyj* 'God' is English *sky*. Moreover, *huej* 'strange' is Greek *skaiós* 'left', Latin *scaevus*, cf. English *shy*. Similarly Albanian *f* goes back in many cases to *sp* or *sp̑h*. Thus *fyej* 'I insult' is English *spew*; *farë* 'seed' is Greek *sporá*; *ferrë* 'thorn, briar' is Gaulish *sparnos* 'briar' and Lithuanian *sparnas* 'pinion, wing', and so on.

A curious development is the change from original *s* to Albanian *gj*.

Thus *gjasht* 'six' is English *six*; *gjalp* 'butter' is English *salve*; *gjarpën* 'snake' is Latin *serpens*.

Albanian *farë* 'seed', when compared to Greek *spórā*, shows a change from *o* to *a*. Compare *natë* 'night' with Latin *nox*, *darkë* 'supper' with Gk. *dórpon* 'supper' (originally **dorquom*), *bartë* 'carried, in a bundle' with Gk. *fórtos* 'cargo'. Loan-words from Latin are subject to the same strict rules. Thus Albanian *lar* 'laurel', *ar* 'gold', *pak* 'little, few', *Pal* 'Paul', show that Albanian *a* also derives from *au*.

Successive waves of invaders have brought foreign words into Albanian, though the large majority of these come from Latin. The first loan-words are prehistoric culture words from an unknown Mediterranean source (*voj* 'oil', *ullí* 'olive', *kilikânzë* 'arum lily', *sânzë* 'gentian'). The Romans brought in many words relating to brick-built houses, roads, cities, and city life, such as *shuell* 'floor', *shtëpi* 'house' (from *hospitium*), *komin* 'chimney', *mur* 'wall', *tjégullë* 'tile', *shkallë* 'stairs, steps', *pus* 'well', *rrugë* 'road', *fushë* 'plain' (from *fossa*), *qytët* 'city' (from *civitas*), *pópull* 'people', *shtet* 'state', *ligjë* 'law', *gjyq* 'lawcourt, judgement, trial' (from *judicium*), and many more. The spread of Catholicism is mainly responsible for *shelboj* 'I save', *mëkát* 'sin' (**impeccatum*), *Kërshëndelle* 'Christmas' (from *Christi Natalia*), *Rrëshajë* 'Whitsun' (from *Rosalia*), *ferr* 'hell' (from *infernus*), *shëjtë* 'holy', *tándoj* 'I tempt', *shërbej* 'I serve', *shpëtoj* 'I save', *përdëllej* 'I forgive' (from **per-indulgēō*), and hundreds more. The Roman Catholic influence in the north is paralleled by Orthodox influence in the south, where we find the words *ikorr* 'image', *dhjatë* 'testament', *mirodh* 'incense', *metani* 'confession', and so on.

The Slav invaders seem to have taught the Albanians the use of several implements such as *plug* 'plow', *daltë* 'chisel', *strug* 'plane', *lopatë* 'shovel', *vedër* 'pail', *koritë* 'trough', and *potkue* 'horseshoe'. It is curious that the word *zakon*, which in Slavonic means 'law', in Albanian means 'custom'.

The Venetians have added to Albanian the words *shkollë* 'school', *gabelë* 'Gipsy', *gotë* 'glass', and *pulpë* 'calf of the leg'.

Ottoman Turkish words began to come into Albanian soon after the Turkish conquest about A.D. 1470. In Buzuk's Litany of A.D. 1555 we find no fewer than nine Turkish words! In modern Albanian most surviving Turkish words represent parts of the Turkish (mudbrick) house, articles of furniture, foodstuffs and dishes, cultivated plants, dress materials and articles of clothing, and Moslem religious objects and practices.

THE PRONUNCIATION OF ALBANIAN

The Albanian vowels *a*, *e*, *i*, *o*, *u* are approximately as in Italian or German. The vowel *y* = French *u*, German *ü*; the vowel *ë* is the murmured vowel of English *the*, *an*, *a*, *but*. The circumflex denotes nasality (*â*, *ê*, *î*, *ô*, *û*, *ÿ*), a feature absent from Tosk or Southern Albanian. The acute accent, non-essential in writing, shows stress, which is on the *last*

syllable of words ending in a consonant, and on the *last syllable but one* of words ending in a vowel, exceptions being

- (1) Words ending in *ël, ëm, ën, ër, ës, ësh, ët, ëz* and in *ull, un, ur*, and *as*, which are stressed on the penultimate though ending in a consonant. Examples: *nësër, akull*.
- (2) Passive forms which, though frequently ending in a consonant, maintain the stress on the radical or stem-vowel. Examples: *dëhem, mbulohem*.
- (3) Inflected nouns which always stress the radical vowel. Example: *málit* 'to the mountain'.
- (4) Final nasalized vowels, which are always stressed.

The consonants deviate from English usage as follows: *c = ts* in *pots*; *ç = ch* in *church*; *dh = th* in *that*; *gj = gy* in *eggyolk*; *j = y* in *you*; *l* is a 'thin' *l* as in French or German; *ll* is a 'thick' *ll* as in English *wall*; *nj =* Spanish *ñ* in *cañon*, French *gn* in *Boulogne*; *q = ky* in *lockyer*; *r* is slightly trilled, *rr* more so; *x = dz* in *adze*; *xh = j* in *judge*; *zh = s* in *pleasure*; *s* is always like *s* in *sing*; *g* is always as in *gone*. *Aj, ej, ij, oj, uj* are as in English *eye, hey, key, toy*, and *ruin* respectively. The pairs *sh* and *th* have the same value as in English (*th* always as in *think*).

GRAMMATICAL LAY-OUT

Though the Albanian dialects differ slightly from village to village they fall into two main groups, Geg or Northern, Tosk or Southern. Geg is further subdivided into Northern Geg (Scutari and the Highlands) and Central Geg (Tirana, Durazzo, and Elbasan). The Central Geg dialect of Elbasan is deemed the purest and sets the pattern for the whole country. Tosk differs slightly from Geg in its grammar, the most striking differences being in the formation of the imperfect. Tosk frequently substitutes *r* in words which in Geg are spelt with *n*. Thus *verë* 'wine' for Geg *vënë*. To convert Geg into Tosk substitute as follows:

Read Tosk	-ur, past participle ending	for Geg	-un
„	-uar, past participle ending	„	-uem
„	-or, adjective ending	„	-uer
„	-onjë, agent ending	„	-ues
„	-uarshëm, adjective ending	„	-ueshëm
„	ë (murmured vowel)	„	â and ê (nasal vowels)
„	ç- (a prefix)	„	sh-

The sound of *ë* is largely omitted in the Geg dialects. Thus Tosk *këndoj* 'I read' is pronounced *kndoj* in Central Geg, *knoj* in Scutari.

NOUNS. Masculines almost invariably end in a consonant, feminines in a vowel (usually either *ë, e, or f*), and Turkish loan-words ending in

-*á* are also feminine. Nouns in -*ëz* are always feminine; nouns in -*ull*, -*ël* are sometimes masculine, sometimes feminine. (Etymology will often help. Thus *rrégull* 'rule' and *pjérgull* 'pergola' are feminine, while *pópull* 'people' is masculine.) A few masculines end in -*ë* (*djalë* 'boy') and in -*í* (*barí* 'shepherd'). Nouns ending in a stressed nasal vowel are almost invariably masculine (*ullí* 'olive', *luá* 'lion').

Nouns have two forms, basic (nominative and accusative) and oblique (genitive and dative). Thus *bar*, a masculine noun, means 'grass'; *bari* 'of grass, to grass'. For masculine nouns ending in *k*, *g*, *h*, or *í* the inflexion is -*u*. Thus *dushk* 'oak', *dushku* 'of oak, to oak'; *shelg* 'willow', *shelgu* 'of willow, to willow'. Feminines in -*ë* inflect to -*e*, thus *natë* 'night', *nate* 'of night, to night'. Feminines in *e* inflect to *eje*, thus *krunde* 'bran', *krúndeje* 'of bran, to bran'. Feminines in -*í* inflect to *ije*, thus *Shqipní* 'Albania', *Shqipnije* 'of Albania, to Albania'.

The plural of nouns is most frequently -*a* or -*ë*, but there are many exceptions, for which the learner is referred to Stuart Mann, *Short Albanian Grammar*, London (Nutt), 1932. The oblique form of the plural is constructed by adding -*ve* to the basic (nom. and acc.) form, thus *burra* (pl. of *burr*) 'men', *búrrave* 'of men, to men'; *dega* (pl. of *degë*) 'branches', oblique: *dégave*; *lopë* (pl. of *lopë*) 'cows', oblique: *lópëve*. Some nouns form their plurals with -*na*, as *bar*, pl. *barna* 'herbs'; by changing the vowel, as *natë*, pl. *netë* 'nights'; by palatalization, as *shelg*, pl. *shelgj* 'willows'; and by change of consonant, as *pópull*, pl. *pópuj* 'peoples'.

The definite article in Albanian is a suffix as in Scandinavian. Thus *bari* means 'the grass'. The accusative is *bárin*, the genitive and dative *bárit* ('of, to the grass'). Similarly *dushku* 'the oak', gen. and dat. *dúshkut* 'of the oak' and 'to the oak'. *Nata* is 'the night', accusative *natën*, gen. and dat. *natës* ('of, to the night'). *Shtëpija* is 'the house' (indefinite *shtëpi* 'house'), accusative *shtëpin*, gen. and dat. *shtëpis* ('of, to the house'). *Kafe* 'coffee' becomes *kafja* 'the coffee', gen. and dat. *káfes* ('of, to the coffee').

The definite plural differs throughout from the indefinite by the mere addition of -*t*. Thus *burra* 'men' becomes *búrrat* 'the men' (nom. and acc.). *Búrrave* 'of, to men' becomes *búrravet* 'of, to the men'.

The connecting particle or link is the relic of a demonstrative pronoun. It precedes adjectives and genitives, and is *të* in all but

- (1) the nominative singular, where the link is *i* after masculine nouns, *e* after feminine nouns;
- (2) the accusative singular, where the link is *e* after both masculines and feminines;
- (3) after feminine singular nouns in the genitive and dative, where the link is *së*;
- (4) after definite plural nouns, nominative and accusative, where the link is *e*.

Examples:

Mali i naltë (nom.) 'the high mountain' (Rule 1). Accusative: *málin e naltë* (Rule 2).

Maja e málit të naltë 'the tip of the high mountain' (Rule 1). Putting the feminine noun *majë* 'tip' into the definite accusative this becomes *majën e málit të naltë* (Rule 2). Now supposing we wish to say 'the high peaks of Albania', this would appear as *májat e nalta të Shqipnis* (Rule 4). If we wish to say 'the tips of the mountains' (note that both nouns are definite), this would be *májat e málevet* (Rule 4). Similarly 'the mountains of Albania' becomes *málet e Shqipnis*. Finally, if we wish to say 'a boy of the first class' this becomes *nji djalë i klasës së parë* (Rule 3).

The link *të* is used after indefinite nouns throughout, except in the nominative singular, where it is *i* for the masculine, *e* for the feminine. Thus *ujë i ftoftë* (masc.) 'cold water' and *bukë e mirë* 'good bread' are nominative only. In the accusative we say *ujë të ftoftë, bukë të mirë*. 'High mountains' becomes *male të nalta* (not *e nalta*).

Indefinite quantity or composition is expressed by the ending *-sh*:

Nji sasi librash 'a quantity of books' (not *librave*, which is the normal gen. pl.).

ADJECTIVES. These vary according to gender, but not according to case. The feminine plural ending is *-a* throughout. This ending is also used after masculines whose plural ends in *-e* (like *male* 'mountains'). Adjectives in *-shëm* change this ending to *-shme* after all feminine nouns (and masc. plurals in *-e*). Adjectives in *-ik, -ak, -ash, -osh, -ac, -ok, and -uer* change in the same way (to *-ike, -ake, and in the case of -uer to -ore*) but drop the particle. Compound adjectives (*kryenaltë* 'high-headed, proud') are invariable. About a dozen adjectives are irregular (see Mann, *Alb. Gr.*, § 64).

PRONOUNS. The possessive pronouns (or possessive adjectives) follow adjective practice. For full lists see Mann, *Alb. Gr.*, §§ 71-73. Of the personal pronouns the following are important: *unë* 'I'; *ti* 'thou'; *ay* 'he'; *ajo* 'she, it'; *ne, na* 'we'; *ju* 'you'; *atë* 'they' m.; *atë* 'they' f.

<i>e</i> (accusative) 'him, her, or it'.	<i>i</i> (dative) 'to him, to her, to it'.
<i>i</i> (nom. and acc. plural) 'them'.	<i>u</i> (dat. pl.) 'to them'.

The contraction *i'a* means 'it to him' or 'it to her'; *u'a* 'it to them'; *i'u* 'them to them'.

VERBS. For full details and paradigms see Mann, *Alb. Gr.*, §§ 6-37. The simple tenses and moods are: present, imperfect, and aorist indicative; present and imperfect subjunctive; and an optative. The future, conditional, perfect, and pluperfect are compound. There is an admirative

mood. Simple monosyllabic verbs (*fal* 'I present, I greet, I pardon'; *kap* 'I seize') remain with their radical vowel unchanged throughout; others change the vowel; many are extended by a stem-vowel. The auxiliary verbs *kam* 'I have' and *jam* 'I am' are entirely irregular, as are about 150 others (about the same number as in English). The principal parts of these are given in § 35 of Mann, *Alb. Gr.* *Do*, an invariable word, forms the future and conditional when combined with the subjunctive mood.

PREPOSITIONS. These govern the accusative or the dative. Those governing the dative require *pronouns* to be in the ablative. A full list is given in Mann, *Alb. Gr.*, § 81.

LEADING PHRASES, ETC.

Yes; no.	Po; jo. (Note that a shake of the head means 'yes'; a toss of the head 'no'.)
Please; thank you.	Të lútem; fálem nderës (<i>Tosk</i> : falem ndërit).
Here; there.	Këtú; atjé, atý.
Where is . . . ? Where are . . . ?	Ku ásht . . . ? Ku janë . . . ?
Have you a . . . ? Have you any . . . ?	A ke nji. . . ? A ke . . . ?
How much? How many?	Sa?
Bring me . . .	Më bjerë . . .
Take . . . Send . . .	Çoj-e! Çoj-i!
Take it! Take them!	Merr-e! Merr-i!
Take it away! Take him away!	Shpier-e!
Bring it here! Bring him here!	Bjer-e këtú!
What 's that called?	Si i thonë asáj?
Tell him . . . (that . . .)	Thuj-i . . . (se . . .).
Show him . . .	Tregoj-i!
Give me a . . .	Më jep nji . . .
How? Where? When? Why?	Si? Ku? Kur? Pse?
Who? Which? What?	Kush? Cili? (<i>f. Cila?</i>) Ça or Çfarë?
How long? How far?	Sa kohë? Sa rrugë?
Some, a few.	Disa (<i>Tosk</i> : ca).
Many, a lot, very, very much.	Shum.
Little, not much, not many.	Pak.
All; none.	Të gjithë (<i>f. të gjitha</i>); asnji ('not one').
Wait!	Prit! <i>Pl.</i> pritni!
Which way?	Kah?
Whence?	Nga?
Where do you come from?	Nga je?
Where do you live?	Ku banón?
What 's your name?	Si të thonë êmnit?

How old are you?	Sa vjetsh je?
Do you understand?	A merr vesht? (<i>pres. tense</i>). A more vesht? (<i>past tense</i>).
Another.	Tjetër.
Again, back.	Prapë.
Once more.	Tjetër herë.
Stop!	Ndal-e! Prit!
Slowly.	Kadalë.
Quickly.	Shpejt.
Tell him to come.	Thuj-i të vinj.
What does he say?	Ça thotë?
Come here!	Eja këtú! <i>Pl.</i> ejani këtú!
Go!	Shko! <i>Pl.</i> shkoni!
Go away!	Ik! <i>Pl.</i> ikni!
Come back! Turn! Return!	Kthe-u! <i>Pl.</i> kthe-u-ni!
What does that mean?	Ça do me thânë ajó?
I don't know.	S'e di <i>or</i> nuk e di.
To the right; on the right.	Djáhtas; më të djathtë.
To the left; on the left.	Májtas; më të majtë.
Look!	Shif! <i>Pl.</i> shifni! (<i>Northern & Tosk:</i> shih, shihni).
Enough.	Mjaft.

GREETINGS, ETC.

Good day!	Tungjatjeta! ('May your life be pro- longed').
How are you?	Si jini?
Well, all right, very well thanks.	Mirë. Mirë mirë. Me shëndét (<i>'with health'</i>).
My compliments, greetings (to . . .).	Të fala (-it, -ës).
Allow me (to introduce to you . . .).	Më lejóni (t'ju paraqés . . .).
Mr. Mrs. Miss.	Zoti. Zonja. Zojusha. (All in definite form.)
Pleased to meet you (know you).	Gëzóhem ('I rejoice'). Gëzóhem shum.
Do join us, come in, sit down, make yourself at home.	Urdhnóni! ('You do the order- ing!')
Do you speak Albanian? English?	A dini me folë shqip? A flitni anglisht?
I don't understand.	S'mora vesht.
Do you smoke?	A pini duhán? ('Do you drink tobacco?')
Pleased to have met you.	U-gëzova ('I have rejoiced').
Goodbye, good day!	Tungjatjeta!

NUMERALS

1 *nji*; 2 *dy*; 3 *tre* (*f. tri*); 4 *katër*; 5 *pesë*; 6 *gjasht*; 7 *shtat*; 8 *tetë*; 9 *nandë*; 10 *dhiet* (*Northern: dhetë*).

11 *nji-më-dhiet*; 12 *dy-më-dhiet*; 13 *tre-më-dhiet*, &c.

20 *njizët*; 21 *njizët-e-nji*; 22 *njizët-e-dy*, &c.

30 *tridhiet*; 40 *dyzët*; 50 *pesdhiet*; 60 *gjashtdhiet*; 70 *shtatdhiet*; 80 *tetdhiet*; 90 *nânddhiet*; 100 *nji qind*; 101 *nji qind e nji*, &c.; 121 *nji qind, njizët e nji*.

1,000 *nji mijë*; 2,000 *dy mijë*; 2,763 *dy mijë, shtat qind, gjashtdhiet e tre*.

First: *i pari, f. e para*. Second: *i dyti, f. e dyta*. Third: *i treti, f. e treta*.

In the definite form they precede, in the indefinite they follow, the noun (thus: *e para herë or hera e parë* 'the first time'). The remaining ordinals are formed by adding *-t* to the cardinal number.

DAYS OF THE WEEK

[For convenience these are in the accusative form, the form in which they are generally used.]

On Sunday: *të Dielen*

On Thursday: *t'Enjtën*

On Monday: *të Hënë*

On Friday: *të Premtën*

On Tuesday: *të Martën*

On Saturday: *të Shtundën*

On Wednesday: *të Mërkurën*

PARTS OF THE DAY

In the morning: *në mëngjës*.

At midnight: *më mesnatë*.

At midday: *në mesditë*.

Yesterday: *dje*.

In the afternoon: *mbas dreke*.

To-day: *sot*.

In the evening: *mbrâma*.

Tomorrow: *nesër*.

Late in the evening: *më natë*.

The day before yesterday: *pardjë*.

The day after tomorrow: *mbasnesër*.

MONTHS OF THE YEAR

On the 1st of Jan.

Më të parën Kallnuer. (In writing: *Më 1 Kallnuer*.)

On the 2nd of Feb.

Më të dytën Fruer (or Shkurt).

On the 3rd of Mar.

Më të tretën Mars.

On the 4th of Apr.

Më të katërtën Prill.

On the 5th of May.

Më të pestën Maj.

On the 6th of June.

Më të gjashtë Qershier.

On the 7th of July.

Më të shtatën Korrik.

On the 8th of Aug.

Më të tetën Gusht.

On the 9th of Sept.

Më të nëndtën Shtatuer.

On the 10th of Oct.

Më të dhietën Tetuer.

On the 11th of Nov.

Më të njëdhietën Nânduer.

On the 12th of Dec.

Më të dymdhietën Dhietuer.

SEASONS

In spring: në prandverë.

In summer: në verë.

In autumn: në vjeshtë.

In winter: në dimën (*Tosk*: në dimër).

At Easter: më Pashkë.

At Christmas: më Kërshëndelle, më Krishtlindje.

FOOD

Supë Tarator. Lâng mishi ('gravy of meat'). Garlic Soup. Broth.

Mish qebab me patate.

Roast meat with potatoes.

Qoftë me dhomate, me patllixhana, me bamje.

Meat balls with tomatoes, egg-plant, okra.

Dhomate të mbúshuna.

Stuffed tomatoes.

Pilaf. Pilaf me këpurdha.

Risotto. Risotto with mushrooms.

Mish qingji ('meat of lamb').

Lamb (generally = mutton!).

Mish kau ('meat of ox').

Beef.

Mish viçi.

Veal.

Mish thiú (thí = pig).

Pork(non-existent in Moslem areas).

Vé të përzime.

Scrambled eggs.

Barishta të përzime.

Mixed vegetables.

Sallata të ndryshme.

Various salads.

Oriz, fasule, bizele, panxhar.

Rice, french beans, peas, beetroot.

Lâng.

Juice, gravy.

Krypë (or kripë); bibër; hardháll; voj (*Tosk*: vaj); úthull; ujë.

Salt; pepper; mustard; oil; vinegar; water.

Kafe; çaj me limon.

Coffee; tea with lemon.

Bukë; frënxholla; gjalpë (Geg: tëlín); kajmak; sheqër; qumësht; vé.

Bread; rolls; butter; cream; sugar; milk; eggs (also egg).

Mollë; dardhë; pjeshkë; kajsí; zerdëf; kúmbulla; portokalle; limoj; rrush; arra.

Apples; pears; peaches; apricots; small apricots; plums; oranges; lemons; grapes; walnuts.

Vënë e bardhë (*Tosk*: verë e bardhë); vënë e kuqe; birra; rakí; konjak.

White wine; red wine; beer; native brandy; cognac.

Të zimë; të pjékun; të fërguem (të tiganísun); të kúqun; të skarës.

Boiled; baked or dry-roasted; fried; roasted; grilled.

Bukë mëngezi; drekë; darkë.

Breakfast; lunch; dinner.

AT AN HOTEL

A single room. A double room.

Nji odë për një vetë. Nji odë për dy veta.

For one person.

Për një vetë.

Is it free?	A âsht e lirë?
Take them upstairs, downstairs.	Çoj-i nalt, posht.
Give me the key. I want my key.	Më jep çilsin. Due çilsin tim.
Can I leave it here?	A mund t'a lá këtë?
Keep it for me.	Mbaj-e për mue.
Write it on the bill.	Shkruj-e në hesap.
I want my bill.	Due hesápin tim.
Where is the W.C.? the bathroom?	Ku âsht nevojtorja? oda e banjës?
Have you any letters for me?	A ke letra për mue?
Have you a stamp for this letter?	A ke një pullë për këtë letër?

FORMULAE IN LETTER-WRITING

Tirana, Jan. 31st, 1945.	Tiranë, më 31 Kallnuer.
To His Excellency . . .	Shkëlqesës së Tij . . .
Dear Sir. (Dear) Sirs.	Fort i ndershëm Zotní! Zotnij! ('Gentlemen!').
I have received your letter.	Letrën tuej e mora. Letrën e Zotnís s'uej e mora.
In answer to your letter.	Në përgjegje të letrës s'uej.
I beg to inform you (that . . .).	Marr lejën me ju bâ me dijtë (se . . .) ('I take the leave to make you to know').
I want information about . . .	Due njoftime për . . .
On the occasion of . . .	Më rastin e . . .
Please accept my sincere congratulations.	Pranoni, ju lutem, urime të mija të përzëmërta.
Greetings. My greetings to Mr. X, Mrs. X.	Të fala. Të fala të mija Zotit X, Zonjës X.
Best wishes. My respects.	Urime. Me nderime.
Yours.	I Juej. (<i>fem.</i>) E Jueja.

A CHRONOLOGY FOR ALBANIA AND NEIGHBOURING PEOPLES

(TO END OF THE NINETEENTH CENTURY)

ALBANIA, EPIRUS, AND GREECE	SERBIA AND MACEDONIA	BULGARIA	BYZANTINE EMPIRE
B.C. 650 Tribal Illyrians. 700-500 Greek colonization. (627 Epidamnus). 383-359 Kingdom of Illyria: Bardylis. 300-272 Kingdom of Epirus: Pyrrhus.	Kingdom of Macedon. 359 Philip II. 336-323 <i>Alexander the Great</i> . 279 Celtic invasion.	Kingdom of Thrace. c. 340 Conquered by Macedon.	Byzantium a Greek colony. 332-323 <i>Alexander: Eastern Conquests</i> . Kingdoms of Bithynia and Pergamum.

ROMAN CONQUESTS

B.C. 229 Roman intervention in defence of Greek interests: 168 Roman Province of Illyricum.	B.C. 168 Roman Province of Macedon. A.D. 100 Serbs in Galacia. 250 Gothic invasion.	Bulgars on Volga and Kuma.	B.C. 133 Roman Province of Asia.
A.D. 395 Illyricum divided between East and West Empires.	453 Hun inroads. 559 Avar invasions.	482 Bulgars north of Black Sea.	A.D. 330 Constantinople founded. 395 Eastern and Western Empires di- vided.

SLAV CONQUESTS

550-640 Slav invasions between Adriatic and Aegean.	871 Serbs become Christian. 931 Serbs vassals of Byzantium.	626 Bulgars attack Constantinople. 679 Bulgars settle south of Danube. 865 Bulgars become Christian. 893-927 Tsar Simeon.	963-1025 Basil II, the Bulgar-Slayer.
1014 Basil II recovers Albania, Epirus, and Macedonia for Byzantium. 1081 Normans from Italy at Durazzo. 1180 Nemanya Conquest of North Albania. 1204 Despotate of Epirus: Michael Comnenus.	1042 Rashka Dynasty. 1180-1358 Nemanya Dynasty.	1014 Basil II defeats Bulgars. 1186 Asen Dynasty of Tirnovo. 1258 Nemanya conquest of Bulgaria.	1204-1212 Frank conquest of Constanti- nople.
1331-1358 Stephen Dushan. Emperor of Romania, Slavonia, and Albania. 1354 Thopia Dynasty. 1366 Ballsha Dynasty.			1227 Ottoman entry into Anatolia. 1326 Ottoman capital Brusa. 1366 Ottoman capital Adrianople.

OTTOMAN CONQUESTS

1423 Ottoman invasion. 1431 Yannina captured. 1443-1467 Scanderbeg unifies Al- bania. 1478 Croia, 1501 Durazzo, taken. 1571 Antivari and Dulcigno taken from Venice. 1572 Lepanto: Ottoman sea-power broken. 1699-1718 Morea ceded to Venice.	1385 Ottoman conquest: Kosovo. Ottoman Despotate. 1459 Ottoman direct rule. 1521 Belgrade captured. 1696 Danilo I, Prince-Bishop of Monte- negro. 1804 Serbian revolt: Karageorge.	1371 Ottoman conquest: Maritza. 1392-1767 Bulgarian Patriarchate. 1767 Bulgarian Patriarchate suppressed. 1878 Bulgarian Principality. 1908 Bulgarian Kingdom.	1394 Ottoman invasion of Romania. 1423 Invasion of Epirus. 1453 Ottoman capital Constantinople. 1523 Capture of Cyprus. 1529 Siege of Vienna. 1566 First clash with Russia. 1683 2nd Siege of Vienna. 1699 Treaty of Karlowitz. 1774 Russia secures freedom of Black Sea. 1803-1849 Mehemet Ali in Egypt. 1908 Young-Turk revolution.
1750-1831 Bushati Dynasty of Scu- tari. 1803-1821 Ali, Pasha of Tepelene.			

APPENDIX II

THE NEIGHBOURS OF THE ALBANIAN PEOPLE

Note. See Fig. 59 for a rough and very generalized idea of the ethnography of the Balkan Peninsula in 1918. This figure will serve to show the extreme complexity of racial mixture, and also the location of Albanian minorities.

The Greeks

OLDEST historically, in the southern part of the Balkan peninsula, are the Greek-speaking folk who called themselves *Hellenes*, and to whom the Romans gave the general name of *Graeci*; mixed offspring of aboriginal Mediterranean inhabitants of the Aegean coasts and islands, and of Indo-European speaking tribes who from 1500 to 1000 B.C. moved in successive waves from the north. By about 800 B.C. they had become organized in many independent city-states, which were widely propagated (750-550) as far as Cyprus eastward, Sicily and south Italy westwards, and around the Marmara and Black Sea. Adverse climate and barbarous natives restricted their expansion northwards up the Adriatic coastland to a few colonies from Corinth and Corcyra. The local chieftains of Epirus and Illyria did, however, adopt Greek culture and mode of warfare, and created piratical kingdoms along the coast, at Lissus (Lesh), Scodra (Scutari), and Delminium (Delmino).

It was through the quarrels of the Greek cities with these local princes and with the Kings of Macedon that the Romans, now masters of Italy south of the Po, became involved, about 220 B.C., in the political situation beyond the Adriatic and found it necessary to include them all in the provincial administrations of Macedon, Achaëa, and Epirus (168 B.C.).

Medieval Greece. After the dissolution of the Roman Empire in A.D. 395 its Greek provinces remained under the rule of Constantinople until the Norman and Frankish inroads incidental to the Crusades. The country was already becoming feudalized, and the principalities organized by Crusaders included the 'Empire of Romania' and the Marmara (1204-1261), the Latin kingdom of Salonica (1204-1223), the duchy of Athens (1205-1460), the principality of Achaia (Morea, 1205-1432), and the county-palatine of Cephalonia (1194-1483). The north-west, from the gulf of Patras to Lake Scutari, was held by a Byzantine prince as Despot of Epirus (1204-1336). Euboea and Crete were seized by Venice, and many strong points in the Archipelago by Genoa. The Despotate of Epirus was recovered by Constantinople in 1336, then dismembered by local dynasties, and finally conquered by the Ottoman Turks between 1423 and 1479. All the other Frankish states were gradually overpowered, either by the restored Empire or by the Turks before the fall of Constantinople in 1453.

Modern Greece. Local revolts, encouraged but ill supported by Venice, were frequent between 1585 and 1718, and a new phase opens with the rise of Russia under Peter the Great (1689-1725) and its claim to protect the Christian subjects of the Sultan. The French Revolution encouraged ideals of freedom everywhere, and the Romantic Movement revived

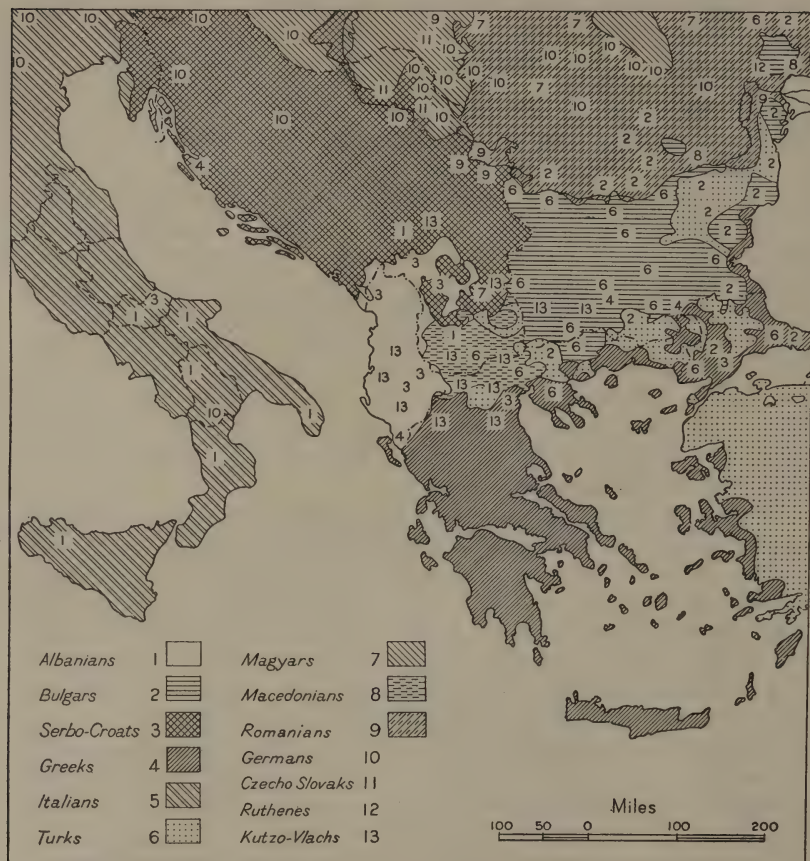


FIG. 59. *The Races of the Balkans. Copied from a War Office Map of 1918*

interest in popular and national cultures. In 1797 the French occupied the Ionian Islands, but soon lost them to Britain (1807). The Serbs revolted in 1804, and the Danubian principalities, under Greek leaders, in 1821. A provisional government appeared in Greece in 1824, and the Treaty of Adrianople (1829), between Russia and the Ottoman Sultan,

liberated southern Greece. In 1832 Prince Otho of Bavaria became 'King of the Hellenes' and his northern (land) frontier ran from Volo to Arta. When Otho had been succeeded by George I, a Prince of Denmark, the Ionian Islands were ceded to Greece by Britain (1864), whilst Thessaly and southern Epirus were added in 1881. Crete, after many revolts, was given to Greece, in 1913, to compensate for the creation of Bulgaria, and Macedonia with western Thrace was ceded to her after the Balkan Wars (1914). Greece now had common frontiers with Bulgaria, Serbia, and Albania, and completely cut off Albania from what was left of Turkey in Europe. The frontier between Greece and Albania was defined in principle in 1913, and delimited in 1926. The temporary changes to the frontier, under Axis administration after 1941, are noted on p. 11.

While the Greeks emerged from tribal independence before their written history begins, the Albanians have retained their tribes and tribal groupings most completely in the northern highland and also to a lesser extent in the south, whilst the feudal land-system, which has replaced communal ownership in the centre and south, is equally irreconcilable with Greek peasant-ownership. The prevalence of Islam, and of Bektashi beliefs, is another cause of hostility, though there are many Orthodox Albanians, especially in the south; and there is the further antipathy between Orthodox and Catholic. But the fundamental difference between Albanian and Greek is not religious so much as national and temperamental.

The Montenegrins

The history of these resolute and hardy people, Slav-speaking but near neighbours of, and to some extent akin to, the Albanians of the north, has been described already on p. 187.

The Serbs

The Serbs first appear as an agricultural Slavonic people in Galicia. Early in the sixth century they came south to the shores of the Black Sea, and thence moved westwards, with other Slav peoples, to the Danube and across it. In 610-640 the Byzantine Emperor Heraclius confirmed their possession of lands recently devastated by the Avars, a northern people related to the Huns. Organized in many independent clans (*zhupaniya*), each in its own district, they formed transitory groups under a powerful chief. These village-communities (*zadruga*), closely grouped in coherent local tribes (*pleme*), retained popular freedom and initiative, even under military adventurers. This loose and mobile organization enabled the Slavs to spread quietly and irresistibly far into the foothills, to reach the Adriatic coast in the more romanized districts of Dalmatia, and to interpose an ethnic barrier between the Eastern and the Western Empires. Into Albania they never penetrated in force, since here they

met their match in tribal solidarity, but in Montenegro and farther north it is likely that many Slav-speaking groups are of Albanian or Illyrian ancestry, as their physical characters suggest.

The Slavs accepted Christianity only after their migrations, and, as they lay between them, were approached independently by Rome and Byzantium, with the result that while the Serbs, like the Bulgarians, became Orthodox, the Croats received Catholic missionaries from Venice and other Adriatic coast towns. As Croatia's northern neighbours, the Magyars, Czechs, and Poles became Catholics likewise, differences of religion and culture among the southern Slavs have remained a grave obstacle to united action, while Hungarian and Italian activities have been encouraged.

Having accepted Orthodox Christianity (871-875), the Serbs became vassals of Byzantium (931) for protection against the Bulgarian Tsar Simeon, who, however, conquered them in 924 for a while, and established Yovan Vladimir as his vassal in Montenegro (989). About 1043, on the collapse of Bulgarian rule, the Princes of Trebinje, and later those of Rashka, revolted, but by 1180 Byzantine suzerainty was restored, and in 1077 the Pope gave the Serbian leader (*Zhupan*) the title of 'king'. In 1169 Stephan Nemanya of Rashka founded a Serb kingdom, and his kinsman the archbishop St. Sava promoted religion and education. Urosh I (1242-1276) married a French princess and was supported against Byzantium by the Anjou kings of Naples. To meet Ottoman aggression Stephan Dushan (1331-1355) unified Serbia, Macedonia, and Albania, and proclaimed himself emperor of the Serbs and the Greeks (1346). He raised the Primate of Serbia to the rank of archbishop, convened a parliament, and published a 'Book of Laws' (*Zakonik*). He died suddenly in 1355 when about to attack Constantinople; there was a Hungarian invasion in 1365, and in 1371 the Nemanya dynasty came to an end. In 1389 the Sultan Murad I defeated the Bulgarians on the Maritza and the whole forces of Serbia at Kossovo. With Hungarian help the Serbs defeated the Turks in 1444; but in 1459 Mohammed II abolished the Despotate and imposed direct Ottoman rule, which lasted 345 years.

The Serbs under Ottoman rule (the period 1400 to 1880). Many Serb refugees crossed the Danube, and in 1403 Belgrade became the capital of Stephen Lazarovich, while the Turks overran the open country. In the mountains Bosnia became a vassal of Hungary (1377-1463). Herzegovina held out for long (1448-1481), and Cetinje in the heart of Montenegro only surrendered when Venice made peace in 1496. After the Ottoman conquest of Hungary in 1526 more Serbs were driven north, and also west to Ragusa before its destruction by earthquake in 1677. But the Patriarchate at Peć was revived in 1557, and Montenegro gradually became independent of the Pashas of Scutari. A century later the Austrian counter-attack as far as Skoplje (1683) was supported by Serbs, but resulted in massacres when it failed. Austria, too, turned against its Slav settlers, and the Roman Church persecuted the Orthodox. The Turks

recovered Belgrade in 1727, abolished the Patriarchate in 1766, and drove many Serbs as far afield as south Russia. In Montenegro, Danilo Petrovich, consecrated Prince-Bishop in 1700, found favour with Peter the Great (1714) as an outpost of Russian policy. In 1787 a joint Austrian and Russian attack on the Turks was supported by a Serb rising under George Petrovich ('Karageorge'—Black George, 1788–1790), and the Montenegrins drove the Turks back to Scutari in 1796. Dalmatia and Cattaro were acquired by Austria in 1797, but were recovered in 1815 after the brief French occupation from 1805 to 1811.

Modern Serbia. The national recovery of the Serbs was hindered by their isolation, by the growing ill-will of Austria, and by internal feuds between leading families. Ottoman misrule and Russian intrigue provoked a general revolt under Karageorge in 1804, but he was expelled by the Turks in 1815. Milosh Obrenovich, one of his officers, raised a second revolt in 1813 and secured a virtual self-government, under Ottoman suzerainty, which was confirmed by Turkey and Russia in the Treaty of Adrianople (1829). Milosh, however, although recognised as 'hereditary prince' in 1830, was forced to abdicate in 1839, and Alexander, son of Karageorge, was elected Prince in 1842 under a constitution granted in 1838. In 1859 Milosh returned, and his able son Michael, who succeeded him in 1860, forced the Sultan to withdraw his garrisons in 1867. In 1868 Michael was assassinated and succeeded by his cousin Milan, who ruled from 1869 to 1889. Traditional Serbian friendship with Russia suffered in consequence of the transfer of Serbian territory to the Bulgarians (1878), though Serbian independence was confirmed by the Berlin Treaty, and Turkish landowners were expropriated.

Thenceforward Serbia, though recognized as an independent kingdom in 1889, became a victim of the rivalries of Russia and Austria, and the Austrian occupation of Bosnia and Herzegovina kept Serbia and Montenegro apart. On the annexation of eastern Rumelia by Bulgaria in 1885 Milan declared war, but was defeated and abdicated in 1889, leaving a liberal constitution which his son Alexander found unworkable. The latter recalled his father for a while in 1897, then dismissed him in 1900, made a disastrous marriage, and was himself assassinated in 1903. His successor, Peter Karageorgevich, made a convention with Bulgaria which offended Austria, and in 1908 the Austrian annexation of Bosnia and Herzegovina, and the 'Young Turk' revolution, nearly led to war. Ottoman misrule in Macedonia inspired the 'Balkan alliance' of 1912 for the partition of Turkey in Europe between Serbia, Greece, and Bulgaria. The Powers, however, recognized the national independence of Albania, the victors quarrelled over their conquests, and Serbia and Greece, after defeating Bulgaria, divided Macedonia, giving Serbia access, through friendly country, to Salonica. In 1914 Austria, deeming Serbians responsible for the murder of Archduke Franz Ferdinand at Sarajevo, overran Serbia and Montenegro, and this challenge to Russia provoked the European

war. King Peter withdrew to Corfu, other Serbian forces joined the Allies at Salonica, and in 1918 Serbia, Montenegro, and the Slav provinces of Austria agreed to unite in one kingdom. The boundary with Italy was confirmed in 1924, and a free zone at Salonica was granted by Greece in 1923. The terms of union of this 'Yugoslav' State were revised in 1929, and further concessions were made to Croat autonomy in 1939. But differences of outlook and religion between Serb and Croat were encouraged by German and Italian intrigue, intent on access to the Aegean and the Near East; and the incorporation of Austria in the Nazi Reich was followed, in 1941, by German invasion of Yugoslavia and Greece.

Between Serbs and Albanians the boundary has always been unstable. Under Ottoman rule Albanian Moslems were favoured, and when, in 1913, Albanians at last revolted from the 'Young Turks' the Serbs would have taken their revenge more completely, had European diplomacy permitted. What Serbia has needed, above all, has been economic outlet, and it has been tempting to seek this through Albania, even at the price of a quarrel with Italy.

During Italian and German occupation Slovenia (Ljubljana) was annexed to Italy; Croatia became independent under the Duke of Aosta as king; Montenegro became an Italian protectorate, and Germany annexed northern Slovenia, Serbia, and the Banat.

The Bulgars

The Bulgars originated in the forest-country of the upper Volga and Kama basins. They were related to the Finns rather than to the Slavs, but when they moved southward in A.D. 482 they were associated with Slavs as well as with Huns and Avars. Probably not numerous at first, and gradually absorbed, like the Franks in western Europe, they lost their language and adopted a Slavonic dialect. After raiding as far as Salonica in 609 and Constantinople in 626, they crossed the Danube in force, in 679, into lands already devastated by Avars and occupied by Serbs. They helped Constantinople against the Saracens in 718, and were appeased by tribute and territory. By 800 they had a code of laws of their own. They adopted Orthodox Christianity under Boris (852-888); Roman missionaries were withdrawn in 867, and the Bulgarian Church was merged in that of Constantinople in 870. The Bogomil heresy, ascetic and nihilist, but also anti-Byzantine, subsequently disturbed relations with the dominant Greek hierarchy, and prepared the peasantry for Islam.

The districts most firmly occupied by the Bulgars were those least effectively hellenized. The old Thracian people was itself intrusive, akin to the Phrygian invaders of Asia Minor (c. 1200 B.C.), and distinct from the Macedonians and the Greeks. Strongly posted between the Danube and the highlands overlooking the Aegean, and sustained by the cornlands and horse-ranches of the Maritza basin, the Thracians resisted helleniza-

tion till Alexander's time, and romanization till Adrianople was founded about A.D. 120. This old population had been devastated, but not destroyed by Goths and Avars, and may be traced in the Pomak peasantry of Eastern Rumelia. Other non-Bulgar elements are the numerous Gipsies, mostly driven from Romania, Bosnians and other Slavs, Greek refugees from Macedonia, Moslem Tatars and Circassians from south Russia, and Petchinag immigrants who came too late to acquire Christianity or full Mediterranean culture. Repeated Byzantine and Ottoman devastations prevented the accumulation of wealth or the creation of an upper class. The Bulgarian Church fell into Greek hands, and when re-established, for political reasons, by the Sultan in 1870, was excommunicated by the Patriarch at Constantinople. The Bogomil peasant suffered equally from landlord and priest.

Under the great Tsar Simeon, who reigned from 893 to 927, the Bulgars attacked Constantinople (917-921) and conquered the Serbs as far as the Drin in 924. His successor Peter was crowned 'king' by a papal legate, but married a Greek, and was recognized as *Basileus* (Gk. 'king', Slav. 'tsar') by the Emperor, who even paid tribute. Later, in 972, the eastern and western districts fell apart and the east became a Byzantine province. Tsar Shishman ruled at Ochrida, and Samuel (977-1014) was again recognized by the Papacy, but was defeated, in 1014, by Basil II, the 'Bulgar-slayer', who took Ochrida in 1018 and established a Greek bishop there in 1035. Tatar and Petchinag raids from the north devastated Bulgar lands, which were colonized by Byzantium with Armenians and Vlachs. From 1018 to 1186 there was no Bulgar State. Norman adventurers in 1081, and early Crusaders in 1096, gave the survivors fresh hopes, but little cohesion, since the landowners inclined to Byzantine vassalage, against the wishes of the Bogomil peasantry. In 1186 a Vlach adventurer, John Asen, supported by Serbs and Crusaders, founded a dynasty at Tirnovo which was defended by the Frank conquerors of Constantinople in 1236 but fell before the Nemanya kingdom of Serbia in 1258. This in turn was overwhelmed by a Hungarian invasion in 1365 and destroyed in 1389 by the Ottoman Turks, who took Tirnovo in 1393, and passed on into Romania in 1394, leaving Turkish and Tartar colonies and those many Bulgarian converts to Islam who are the ancestors of the modern Pomaks. A Bulgarian Patriarchate of Ochrida lasted, however, from 1393 to 1767, in perpetual feud with the Greek Patriarch of Constantinople. In the lake-region and locally in Macedonia Bulgarian dialects were spoken far into the nineteenth century.

Modern Bulgaria. Unlike the Serbs and Romanians, the Bulgarians, an unfeudalized peasantry, with a church dominated by Constantinople Greeks, produced neither popular leaders nor a national movement till late in the nineteenth century. The first native history was published in 1829; the first school opened in 1835. Ottoman diplomacy promised reforms in 1856 and recognized an independent Bulgarian Church in 1870,

but 'Bulgarian atrocities' after the insurrection of 1875 were the pretext for Russian and Romanian intervention in 1877. In the Treaty of San Stefano the Russian project was for an extensive Bulgarian kingdom as counterpart to Serbia and Greece, but this was replaced at the Berlin Congress by a smaller principality under Ottoman suzerainty, and a reformed administration for eastern Rumelia in the Maritza valley, while the Dobruja fell to Romania, and Macedonia was left to the Turks. This was Bismarck's work, and earned Bulgarian gratitude and subservience. The first prince, Alexander of Battenberg, had his capital at Sofia, an inexperienced Parliament, called in 1879, and a disastrous legacy of Russian and German intrigues. In 1881-1883 he was strong enough to suspend the constitution. In 1885 he annexed Eastern Rumelia, refused Serbian demands for compensation, and repelled a Serbian attack, but in 1886 he abdicated and was replaced by Ferdinand of Saxe-Coburg. Between Serbs and Bulgars there has never been a clear frontier; but local antipathies have become involved in the wider ambitions of Austria, and latterly of Germany, in the Near East, and in Russian counter-measures. This rivalry dominates modern Bulgarian history and policy. Growing unrest in Macedonia was not allayed by the appointment of Bulgarian bishops in 1894. Open insurrection in 1902, and the 'Mürzsteg Programme' of Austria and Russia for reforms, were steps towards organized anarchy, which the 'Young Turks' movement, itself of Macedonian origin, was unable to postpone. In 1908 Ferdinand made himself king and independent of the Sultan; Austria annexed Bosnia and Herzegovina; Serbia and Greece saw their common interests threatened by Bulgarian expansion westward, and Romania began to take interest in the scattered Aromuni (Vlach) pastorals everywhere. But the 'Young Turks' were the nearer enemy. In 1913 Serbia, Greece, and Bulgaria in concert ended Ottoman rule in Albania, Macedonia, and Thrace, but quarrelled over their conquests. Bulgaria retained only Thrace, and lost the Dobruja to Romania. Serbia and Greece shared Macedonia, while Albania was rescued from them by European intervention. Thenceforward it has been Bulgarian policy to earn recognition of its western claims by supporting Austrian aggression in 1914-1918 and German in 1939-1944. In view of Serbian and Greek aggression, Albania has some reason to favour Bulgarian claims; but a Bulgarian closure of Serbian access to the Aegean would inevitably reinforce Serbian need for an outlet on the Adriatic.

Venice

This place of refuge for Italians of the Po valley during the Hun invasion of 452 and that of the Lombards in 508 had, with Byzantine help, resisted the Frank invaders in 774, and was recognised by both Powers, in 810, as independent. By 1000 it had mastered the Dalmatian pirates.

Venetian transport services to the first three Crusades increased its experience and influence in the Levant, whilst the diversion of the fourth Crusade into a raid on Constantinople gave it an empire in the archipelago and access to the Black Sea. Venice treated on equal terms with Constantinople, Trebizond, and Alexandria, and bargained with the Moslem Powers for free passage of pilgrims to the Holy Places (1299). Twice a year the Venetian 'Flanders Convoy' visited the ports of the North Sea and Baltic, while its pack-trains crossed the Alps into central and western Europe. To protect landward interests Venice dominated the Po valley nearly to Milan. In 1406 Pisa, its earliest rival at sea, fell into the hands of Florence, and thereafter Genoa alone, with its outposts in the archipelago, at Smyrna, and at Constantinople itself, competed for the eastern trade. By 1400 Venice had the upper hand at sea, and mastery over Crete and later over Cyprus. After 1297 the Grand Council, a close aristocracy of wealth and experience which commanded the support of all classes, was closed against new-comers. Tyrannous misuse, however, of these vast resources and opportunities roused general resentment, and in 1508-1509 the wide League of Cambrai broke up the Venetian land-empire. Meanwhile the Portuguese discovery of the Cape route to the Indies broke the overland monopoly of the eastern luxury-trade. Dutch and English followed the Portuguese and brought cargoes to the ports of northern Europe, whilst the Ottoman Sultans, from 1517, united Anatolia, Syria, and Egypt in a single Moslem State, expelled the Knights of St. John from Rhodes in 1522, and conquered Cyprus in 1571. In 1668 Crete was taken and the Morea, temporarily regained in 1685, was finally lost in 1716. In 1799 the remaining claims of Venice in the Adriatic passed, by the Treaty of Campo Formio, to Austria.

The interest of Venice in Albanian affairs arose, therefore, only from the need of ports of call and naval bases at the entrance to the Adriatic during the long struggle with the Sultans, and not on territorial designs such as those of modern Italy.

The Ottoman Turks

Driven out of central Asia by Mongol pressure in 1227, the Turkish tribes who followed Othman settled near Ankara as vassals of the Seljuk Sultan of Konia. Becoming independent in 1299, they reached the Marmara shore in 1308, secured a foothold in Europe in 1327, made Adrianople their capital in 1367, defeated the Bulgarians in the Maritza in 1371 and the Serbs at Kossovo in 1389, reaching the Danube in 1390, and taking Salonica and Larisa in 1395. Then, in 1423, they invaded Epirus and took Yannina in 1431, but were hard pressed by Serbs and Hungarians until 1438. Mohammed II took Constantinople in 1453, and reorganised the Empire in the form it retained till modern times. In Albania Ottoman authority was challenged by Skanderbeg (1443-1467),

but Croia, Scutari, and Durazzo were taken in 1478, and Otranto was held for a while. Suleiman I defeated the Hungarians in 1526 and besieged Vienna in 1529. Meanwhile the Venetian fleet was defeated at Sapienza in 1499, and the Morea was occupied. The Knights of St. John were expelled from Rhodes in 1522 and the Aegean possessions of Genoa were seized in 1566. Cyprus, which had become a Venetian protectorate in 1489, was conquered in 1571, and Venice, which in the same year had lost Antivari and Dulcigno, its last ports in Albania, made a separate peace in 1573. But a naval attack on Malta had failed in 1565, and at the battle of Lepanto in 1571 Venice broke Ottoman sea power. Russo-Turkish clashes had already begun in 1561.

Ottoman Decline, 1700-1921. It was another century, however, before the second siege of Vienna, 1683, led to a general coalition of Austria, Poland, Russia, and Venice against the Ottoman Empire, and by the Treaty of Karlowitz (1699) the Morea and Dalmatia were ceded to Venice; the Hapsburg Empire absorbed Hungary and penetrated into Serbia and Wallachia; and in 1774 Russia established the claim to pass ships through the Dardanelles and to protect Christian subjects of the Sultan. Though there was little further encroachment by Austria or Russia on Ottoman territories in Europe after 1815, the revival of national sentiment liberated the Serbs (in principle) in 1799, the Romanian principalities, Wallachia and Moldavia, in 1829, the Greeks in 1830, the Bulgarians in 1878, and the Albanians in 1913; and progressively enlarged the original territories of the first four. Outside Europe, Egypt was lost in 1805, Algiers in 1830, Tunis in 1882, Tripoli and Cyrenaica in 1912, Arabia, Syria, and Iraq in 1918; besides large territories in the Caucasus and Armenia conquered by Russia. Ottoman control over the Dardanelles and Bosphorus was limited in 1774, 1809, and 1841; over foreigners trafficking in Turkey, by the system of capitulations; and over its own resources, by vast external loans secured on monopolies and concessions. The reforms of Mahmud II (1808-1839) created a national conscript army and a civil service; those of Abdul Mejid (1839-1861) pleaded uniformity in order to encroach on ancient non-Moslem immunities. Abdul Hamid (1876-1909) governed by a 'palace' system of personal agents and spies, and used his Caliphate to promote a Pan-Islamic policy offensive to his Arab subjects; and the 'Young Turk' policy of ottomanization (1908) offended Arabs, Greeks, Armenians, and Albanians alike. But Albania, so largely Moslem, and threatened by aggressive Christian neighbours, remained loyal till Ottoman impotence was revealed by the Balkan Wars. Then, in 1913, Albania claimed, and was accorded, national status.

The Turkish Republic. Having supported Germany in the European War and lost their remaining Arabic-speaking provinces, the Turks were only saved from dismemberment by a new Nationalist movement, directed by Mustafa Kemal ('Ataturk') and recognized by the Lausanne Treaty (1923). Greek aggression was repelled, and a vast exchange of populations

was effected, eliminating the worst occasions of dispute; a western constitution was established with wide emergency powers for the President. Administration, finance, economy, and education were reorganized; the State was secularized, the Ottoman Sultanate and the Caliphate were abolished, women were enfranchized; and, by strict observance of treaties, Turkey remained aloof from the Second World War.

The Bektashi sect, suppressed in the Turkish Republic for political reasons, has found refuge in Albania, but otherwise the connexion between Albanian and Turkish Moslems has lost its former significance.

The Romanians

Though the modern national State of Romania lies almost wholly north of the lower Danube, Romanian-speaking *Aromuni* or *Vlachs* are widely dispersed in all Balkan countries. Early in the second century A.D. the Roman Emperor Trajan crossed the Danube and conquered most of the country between its middle course, the Carpathians, and the Black Sea. The new province, Dacia, peopled from Italy and Illyria, was fully romanized from the first, and had become very prosperous when the Goths attacked it about A.D. 250. Soon after 270 Aurelian evacuated Dacia and settled many of its inhabitants south of the Danube, in districts devastated by the Goths. Hence the wide use of *Romania* (first in 976) and *Rumelia* to denote this romanized and Latin-speaking element, the pastoral and semi-nomad communities of which have absorbed other folk displaced during the migration period and after the Ottoman conquest. There were three main groups: the 'Great Vlachs' in Thessaly and southern Macedonia, the 'Little Vlachs' in Acarnania and Aetolia, and those in Bulgaria and the north before the second Bulgar empire. All seem to have been joined by homeless families during the frequent devastations of these regions; on the other hand, many pastorals became sedentary and pacific. Others, however, remained in the Carpathian foothills, but returned later to the plains, where they formed, under Ottoman rule, and, after 1711, with Greek (Phanariote) administrators, the sedentary population of the 'Danubian Principalities', Moldavia and Wallachia. Liberated from Ottoman rule by Russia in 1774 and united in 1857 to form the modern Romanian kingdom, under a German dynasty, they supported Russia against the Sultan in 1877, and the Western Powers in 1914-1918. They acquired successively districts predominantly Romanian, beyond the lower Danube (Dobruja) from Bulgaria, and beyond the Carpathians (Transylvania) from Hungary. Romania also claims a protective interest in all scattered groups of Aromuni (Vlachs) in Balkan lands, offsetting Bulgarian claims in Macedonia.

APPENDIX M

CONVERSION TABLES

METRIC AND BRITISH UNITS

All metallic standards are subject to molecular change. Tables differ according to the date of the comparison on which they rest. These are based on the 1896 comparison between Yard and Metre, which gives:

$$1 \text{ metre} = 39.370113 \text{ inches.}$$

Tables 1 to 6 give the ratios between units of the same sort.

Space, and printing, deny the use of many decimal figures. Therefore such a figure as 0.00000032 is given as 3.2×10^{-7} (which means that the first significant figure is the seventh after the decimal point: 0.0001925 becomes 1.925×10^{-4} , and 0.0000734 is 7.34×10^{-5}).

Tables 7 to 20 give ratios *in extenso* between single units.

These deal with conversions from metric into the equivalent British units.

Figures referring to metric units are given in italics; metric units (1 to 9) are given at the top of each table, reading horizontally from left to right; metric tens read vertically from top to bottom on extreme right and left of the table.

Thus in Table 8, if 87 centimetres are to be converted to inches, the 8 is read on the left or right edge, and, following the horizontal line until the 7 unit column is reached, the answer 34.252 is read.

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TABLE 1. UNITS OF LENGTH

Nautical mile	Statute mile	Kilometre	Metre	Yard	Foot	Inch	Centimetre
I	$I \cdot 152$	$I \cdot 853$	$I 853$	2027	$\dagger 6080$	$72,960$	$I 85,300$
$8 \cdot 684 \times 10^{-1}$	I	$I \cdot 60934$	$I 609 \cdot 34$	$I 760$	5280	$63,360$	$I 60,934$
$5 \cdot 396 \times 10^{-1}$	$6 \cdot 21372 \times 10^{-1}$	I	$I 000$	$I 093 \cdot 61$	$3280 \cdot 84$	$39,370 \cdot 1$	$I 00,000$
$5 \cdot 396 \times 10^{-4}$	$6 \cdot 21372 \times 10^{-4}$	$I \cdot 0 \times 10^{-3}$	I	$I \cdot 09361$	$3 \cdot 28084$	$39 \cdot 3701$	$I 00$
$4 \cdot 934 \times 10^{-4}$	$5 \cdot 68182 \times 10^{-4}$	$9 \cdot 14399 \times 10^{-4}$	$9 \cdot 14399 \times 10^{-1}$	I	3	36	$91 \cdot 4399$
$I \cdot 645 \times 10^{-4}$	$I \cdot 89394 \times 10^{-4}$	$3 \cdot 048 \times 10^{-4}$	$3 \cdot 048 \times 10^{-1}$	$3 \cdot 33333 \times 10^{-1}$	I	$I 2$	$30 \cdot 48(00)$
$I \cdot 371 \times 10^{-5}$	$I \cdot 57828 \times 10^{-5}$	$2 \cdot 54 \times 10^{-5}$	$2 \cdot 54 \times 10^{-2}$	$2 \cdot 77778 \times 10^{-2}$	$8 \cdot 33333 \times 10^{-2}$	I	$2 \cdot 54(000)$
$5 \cdot 396 \times 10^{-6}$	$6 \cdot 21372 \times 10^{-6}$	$I \cdot 0 \times 10^{-5}$	$I \cdot 0 \times 10^{-2}$	$I \cdot 09361 \times 10^{-2}$	$3 \cdot 28084 \times 10^{-2}$	$3 \cdot 93701 \times 10^{-1}$	I

† This is the customary British practice, and not the international nautical mile, of 1852 metres, which Great Britain has not adopted.

Rough rules: 1 millimetre = 0.04 inch.

1 metre = $\frac{10}{3}$ feet.

1 kilometre = $\frac{5}{8}$ of a mile.

TABLE 2. UNITS OF AREA

Square mile	Square kilometre	Hectare	Acre	Square metre	Square yard	Square foot
I	$2 \cdot 58998$	$258 \cdot 998$	640	$258,998 \times 10$	$30,976 \times 10^2$	$278,784 \times 10^2$
$3 \cdot 86103 \times 10^{-1}$	I	$I 00$	$247 \cdot 106$	$I,000,000$	$I 19,599 \times 10$	$I 07,639 \times 10^2$
$3 \cdot 86103 \times 10^{-3}$	$I \cdot 0 \times 10^{-2}$	I	$2 \cdot 47106$	$I 0,000$	$I I,959 \cdot 9$	$I 07,639$
$I \cdot 5625 \times 10^{-3}$	$4 \cdot 04685 \times 10^{-3}$	$4 \cdot 04685 \times 10^{-1}$	I	$4046 \cdot 85$	4840	$43,560$
$3 \cdot 86103 \times 10^{-7}$	$I \cdot 0 \times 10^{-6}$	$I \cdot 0 \times 10^{-4}$	$2 \cdot 47106 \times 10^{-4}$	I	$I \cdot 19599$	$I 0 \cdot 7639$
$3 \cdot 22831 \times 10^{-7}$	$8 \cdot 36126 \times 10^{-7}$	$8 \cdot 36126 \times 10^{-5}$	$2 \cdot 06612 \times 10^{-4}$	$8 \cdot 36126 \times 10^{-1}$	I	9
$3 \cdot 58701 \times 10^{-8}$	$9 \cdot 29029 \times 10^{-8}$	$9 \cdot 29029 \times 10^{-6}$	$2 \cdot 29568 \times 10^{-5}$	$9 \cdot 29029 \times 10^{-2}$	$I \cdot 11111 \times 10^{-1}$	I

Rough rules: 1 square kilometre = $\frac{3}{8}$ square mile.

1 hectare = $2 \frac{1}{2}$ acres.

TABLE 3. UNITS OF VOLUME

Kilolitre	Cubic metre	Cubic yard	Bushel	Cubic foot	Imp. gall.	Litre	Pint
1	1·000027	1·30799	27·4969	35·3157	219·976	1000	1759·80
$9·99973 \times 10^{-1}$	1	1·30795	27·4962	35·3148	219·970	999·973	1759·75
$7·64532 \times 10^{-1}$	$7·64553 \times 10^{-1}$	1	21·0223	27	168·178	764·532	1345·43
$3·63677 \times 10^{-1}$	$3·63687 \times 10^{-1}$	$4·75685 \times 10^{-2}$	1	1·28435	8	36·3677	64
$2·83160 \times 10^{-2}$	$2·83167 \times 10^{-2}$	$3·70370 \times 10^{-2}$	$7·78602 \times 10^{-1}$	1	6·22882	28·3160	49·8306
$4·54596 \times 10^{-3}$	$4·54608 \times 10^{-3}$	$5·94607 \times 10^{-3}$	$1·25 \times 10^{-1}$	$1·60544 \times 10^{-1}$	1	4·54596	8
$1·0 \times 10^{-3}$	$1·000027 \times 10^{-3}$	$1·30799 \times 10^{-3}$	$2·74969 \times 10^{-2}$	$3·53157 \times 10^{-2}$	$2·19976 \times 10^{-1}$	1	1·75980
$5·68245 \times 10^{-4}$	$5·68260 \times 10^{-4}$	$7·43258 \times 10^{-4}$	$1·5625 \times 10^{-2}$	$2·00680 \times 10^{-2}$	$1·25 \times 10^{-1}$	$5·68245 \times 10^{-1}$	1

TABLE 4. UNITS OF WEIGHT

† Ton	Millier or metric ton	Quintal	Kilogramme	lb.
1	1·01605	10·1605	1016·05	2240
$9·84207 \times 10^{-1}$	1	10	1000	2204·62
$9·84207 \times 10^{-2}$	$1·0 \times 10^{-1}$	1	100	220·462
$9·84207 \times 10^{-4}$	$1·0 \times 10^{-3}$	$1·0 \times 10^{-2}$	1	2·20462
$4·46429 \times 10^{-4}$	$4·53592 \times 10^{-4}$	$4·53592 \times 10^{-3}$	$4·53592 \times 10^{-1}$	1

† The ton of 2240 lb. is sometimes called the "Long Ton" to distinguish it from the "Short Ton" of 2000 lb.
Rough rule: To turn metric into British tons deduct $1\frac{1}{2}$ per cent.

TABLE 5. UNITS OF PRESSURE

<i>Atmosphere normal</i> 760 mm. Hg at 0° C. ($g = 980.665$ cm. per sec. per sec.)	<i>Bar</i> ($= 10^6$ dynes per sq. cm.)	<i>lb. per sq. inch</i> ($g = 980.665$ cm. per sec. per sec.)	<i>Inches of mercury at 32° F.</i> ($g = 980.665$ cm. per sec. per sec.)	<i>Millibars (1,000 dynes per sq. cm.)</i>
<i>I</i>	<i>I</i>			<i>I</i>
9.86923×10^{-1}	1.01325	14.6959	29.9213	1013.25
6.80461×10^{-2}	<i>I</i>	14.5037	29.5300	1000
3.34210×10^{-2}	6.89477×10^{-2}	<i>I</i>	2.03603	68.9477
9.86923×10^{-4}	3.38639×10^{-2}	4.91153×10^{-1}	<i>I</i>	33.8639
	1.0×10^{-3}	1.45937×10^{-2}	2.95300×10^{-1}	<i>I</i>

TABLE 6. YIELDS PER AREA

<i>Ton per acre</i>	<i>Metric ton per hectare</i>	<i>Quintal per hectare</i>
<i>I</i>		
3.98294×10^{-1}	2.51071	25.1071
3.98294×10^{-2}	<i>I</i>	10
	1.0×10^{-1}	<i>I</i>

TABLE 7. METRES TO FEET. 1 metre = 3.28084 feet

	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
1	..	3.3	6.6	9.8	13.1	16.4	19.7	23.0	26.3	29.5	1
2	32.8	36.1	39.4	42.7	45.9	49.2	52.5	55.8	59.1	62.3	2
3	65.6	68.9	72.2	75.5	78.7	82.0	85.3	88.6	91.9	95.1	3
4	98.4	101.7	105.0	108.3	111.6	114.8	118.1	121.4	124.7	128.0	4
5	131.2	134.5	137.8	141.1	144.4	147.6	150.9	154.2	157.5	160.8	5
6	164.0	167.3	170.6	173.9	177.2	180.5	183.7	187.0	190.3	193.6	6
7	196.9	200.1	203.4	206.7	210.0	213.3	216.5	219.8	223.1	226.4	7
8	229.7	232.9	236.2	239.5	242.8	246.1	249.3	252.6	255.9	259.2	8
9	262.5	265.8	269.0	272.3	275.6	278.9	282.2	285.4	288.7	292.0	9
10	295.3	298.6	301.8	305.1	308.4	311.7	315.0	318.2	321.5	324.8	10
11	328.1	331.4	334.6	337.9	341.2	344.5	347.8	351.0	354.3	357.6	11
12	360.9	364.2	367.5	370.7	374.0	377.3	380.6	383.9	387.1	390.4	12
13	393.7	397.0	400.3	403.5	406.8	410.1	413.4	416.7	419.9	423.2	13
14	426.5	429.8	433.1	436.4	439.6	442.9	446.2	449.5	452.8	456.0	14
15	459.3	462.6	465.9	469.2	472.4	475.7	479.0	482.3	485.6	488.8	15
16	492.1	495.4	498.7	502.0	505.2	508.5	511.8	515.1	518.4	521.7	16
17	524.9	528.2	531.5	534.8	538.1	541.3	544.6	547.9	551.2	554.5	17
18	557.7	561.0	564.3	567.6	570.9	574.1	577.4	580.7	584.0	587.3	18
19	590.6	593.8	597.1	600.4	603.7	607.0	610.2	613.5	616.8	620.1	19
20	623.4	626.6	629.9	633.2	636.5	639.8	643.0	646.3	649.6	652.9	20
21	656.2	659.4	662.7	666.0	669.3	672.6	675.9	679.1	682.4	685.7	21
22	689.0	692.3	695.5	698.8	702.1	705.4	708.7	711.9	715.2	718.5	22
23	721.8	725.1	728.3	731.6	734.9	738.2	741.5	744.8	748.0	751.3	23
24	754.6	757.9	761.2	764.4	767.7	771.0	774.3	777.6	780.8	784.1	24
25	787.4	790.7	794.0	797.2	800.5	803.8	807.1	810.4	813.7	816.9	25
26	820.2	823.5	826.8	830.1	833.3	836.6	839.9	843.2	846.5	849.7	26
27	853.0	856.3	859.6	862.9	866.1	869.4	872.7	876.0	879.3	882.5	27
28	885.8	889.1	892.4	895.7	899.0	902.2	905.5	908.8	912.1	915.4	28
29	918.6	921.9	925.2	928.5	931.8	935.0	938.3	941.6	944.9	948.2	29
30	951.4	954.7	958.0	961.3	964.6	967.8	971.1	974.4	977.7	981.0	30
31	984.3	987.5	990.8	994.1	997.4	1000.7	1003.9	1007.2	1010.5	1013.8	31
32	1017.1	1020.3	1023.6	1026.9	1030.2	1033.5	1036.7	1040.0	1043.3	1046.6	32
	1049.9	1053.1	1056.4	1059.7	1063.0	1066.3	1069.6	1072.8	1076.1	1079.4	33

	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
33	1082.7	1086.0	1089.2	1092.5	1095.8	1099.1	1102.4	1105.6	1108.9	1112.2	33
34	1115.5	1118.8	1122.0	1125.3	1128.6	1131.9	1135.2	1138.5	1141.7	1145.0	34
35	1148.3	1151.6	1154.9	1158.1	1161.4	1164.7	1168.0	1171.3	1174.5	1177.8	35
36	1181.1	1184.4	1187.7	1190.9	1194.2	1197.5	1200.8	1204.1	1207.3	1210.6	36
37	1213.9	1217.2	1220.5	1223.8	1227.0	1230.3	1233.6	1236.9	1240.2	1243.4	37
38	1246.7	1250.0	1253.3	1256.6	1259.8	1263.1	1266.4	1269.7	1273.0	1276.2	38
39	1279.5	1282.8	1286.1	1289.4	1292.7	1295.9	1299.2	1302.5	1305.8	1309.1	39
40	1312.3	1315.6	1318.9	1322.2	1325.5	1328.7	1332.0	1335.3	1338.6	1341.9	40
41	1345.1	1348.4	1351.7	1355.0	1358.3	1361.5	1364.8	1368.1	1371.4	1374.7	41
42	1378.0	1381.2	1384.5	1387.8	1391.1	1394.4	1397.6	1400.9	1404.2	1407.5	42
43	1410.8	1414.0	1417.3	1420.6	1423.9	1427.2	1430.4	1433.7	1437.0	1440.3	43
44	1443.6	1446.9	1450.1	1453.4	1456.7	1460.0	1463.3	1466.5	1469.8	1473.1	44
45	1476.4	1479.7	1482.9	1486.2	1489.5	1492.8	1496.1	1499.3	1502.6	1505.9	45
46	1509.2	1512.5	1515.7	1519.0	1522.3	1525.6	1528.9	1532.2	1535.4	1538.7	46
47	1542.0	1545.3	1548.6	1551.8	1555.1	1558.4	1561.7	1565.0	1568.2	1571.5	47
48	1574.8	1578.1	1581.4	1584.6	1587.9	1591.2	1594.5	1597.8	1601.0	1604.3	48
49	1607.6	1610.9	1614.2	1617.5	1620.7	1624.0	1627.3	1630.6	1633.9	1637.1	49
50	1640.4	1643.7	1647.0	1650.3	1653.6	1656.8	1660.1	1663.4	1666.7	1669.9	50
51	1673.2	1676.5	1679.8	1683.1	1686.4	1689.6	1692.9	1696.2	1699.5	1702.8	51
52	1706.0	1709.3	1712.6	1715.9	1719.2	1722.4	1725.7	1729.0	1732.3	1735.6	52
53	1738.8	1742.1	1745.4	1748.7	1752.0	1755.2	1758.5	1761.8	1765.1	1768.4	53
54	1771.7	1774.9	1778.2	1781.5	1784.8	1788.1	1791.3	1794.6	1797.9	1801.2	54
55	1804.5	1807.8	1811.0	1814.3	1817.6	1820.9	1824.1	1827.4	1830.7	1834.0	55
56	1837.3	1840.6	1843.8	1847.1	1850.4	1853.7	1857.0	1860.2	1863.5	1866.8	56
57	1870.1	1873.4	1876.6	1879.9	1883.2	1886.5	1889.8	1893.0	1896.3	1899.6	57
58	1902.9	1906.2	1909.4	1912.7	1916.0	1919.3	1922.6	1925.9	1929.1	1932.4	58
59	1935.7	1939.0	1942.3	1945.5	1948.8	1952.1	1955.4	1958.7	1961.9	1965.2	59
60	1968.5	1971.8	1975.1	1978.3	1981.6	1984.9	1988.2	1991.5	1994.8	1998.0	60
61	2001.3	2004.6	2007.9	2011.1	2014.4	2017.7	2021.0	2024.3	2027.6	2030.8	61
62	2034.1	2037.4	2040.7	2044.0	2047.2	2050.5	2053.8	2057.1	2060.4	2063.6	62
63	2066.9	2070.2	2073.5	2076.8	2080.1	2083.3	2086.6	2089.9	2093.2	2096.5	63
64	2099.7	2103.0	2106.3	2109.6	2112.9	2116.1	2119.4	2122.7	2126.0	2129.3	64
65	2132.5	2135.8	2139.1	2142.4	2145.7	2149.0	2152.3	2155.5	2158.8	2162.1	65
66	2165.4	2168.6	2171.9	2175.2	2178.5	2181.8	2185.1	2188.3	2191.6	2194.9	66

CONVERSION TABLES

	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
67	2198.2	2201.5	2204.7	2208.0	2211.3	2214.6	2217.9	2221.1	2224.4	2227.7
68	2231.0	2234.3	2237.5	2240.8	2244.1	2247.4	2250.7	2253.9	2257.2	2260.5
69	2263.8	2267.1	2270.4	2273.6	2276.9	2280.2	2283.5	2286.8	2290.0	2293.3
70	2296.6	2299.9	2303.2	2306.4	2309.7	2313.0	2316.3	2319.6	2322.8	2326.1
71	2329.4	2332.7	2336.0	2339.2	2342.5	2345.8	2349.1	2352.4	2355.6	2358.9
72	2362.2	2365.5	2368.8	2372.0	2375.3	2378.6	2381.9	2385.2	2388.5	2391.7
73	2395.0	2398.3	2401.6	2404.9	2408.1	2411.4	2414.7	2418.0	2421.3	2424.5
74	2427.8	2431.1	2434.4	2437.7	2440.9	2444.2	2447.5	2450.8	2454.1	2457.3
75	2460.6	2463.9	2467.2	2470.5	2473.8	2477.0	2480.3	2483.6	2486.9	2490.2
76	2493.4	2496.7	2500.0	2503.3	2506.6	2509.8	2513.1	2516.4	2519.7	2523.0
77	2526.2	2529.5	2532.8	2536.1	2539.4	2542.7	2545.9	2549.2	2552.5	2555.8
78	2559.1	2562.3	2565.6	2568.9	2572.2	2575.5	2578.7	2582.0	2585.3	2588.6
79	2591.9	2595.1	2598.4	2601.7	2605.0	2608.3	2611.5	2614.8	2618.1	2621.4
80	2624.7	2628.0	2631.2	2634.5	2637.8	2641.1	2644.4	2647.6	2650.9	2654.2
81	2657.5	2660.8	2664.0	2667.3	2670.6	2673.9	2677.2	2680.4	2683.7	2687.0
82	2690.3	2693.6	2696.9	2700.1	2703.4	2706.7	2710.0	2713.3	2716.5	2719.8
83	2723.1	2726.4	2729.7	2732.9	2736.2	2739.5	2742.8	2746.1	2749.3	2752.6
84	2755.9	2759.2	2762.5	2765.7	2769.0	2772.3	2775.6	2778.9	2782.2	2785.4
85	2788.7	2792.0	2795.3	2798.6	2801.8	2805.1	2808.4	2811.7	2815.0	2818.2
86	2821.5	2824.8	2828.1	2831.4	2834.6	2837.9	2841.2	2844.5	2847.8	2851.0
87	2854.3	2857.6	2860.9	2864.2	2867.5	2870.7	2874.0	2877.3	2880.6	2883.9
88	2887.1	2890.4	2893.7	2897.0	2900.3	2903.5	2906.8	2910.1	2913.4	2916.7
89	2919.9	2923.2	2926.5	2929.8	2933.1	2936.4	2939.6	2942.9	2946.2	2949.5
90	2952.8	2956.0	2959.3	2962.6	2965.9	2969.2	2972.4	2975.7	2979.0	2982.3
91	2985.6	2988.8	2992.1	2995.4	2998.7	3002.0	3005.2	3008.5	3011.8	3015.1
92	3018.4	3021.7	3024.9	3028.2	3031.5	3034.8	3038.1	3041.3	3044.6	3047.9
93	3051.2	3054.5	3057.7	3061.0	3064.3	3067.6	3070.9	3074.1	3077.4	3080.7
94	3084.0	3087.3	3090.6	3093.8	3097.1	3100.4	3103.7	3107.0	3110.2	3113.5
95	3116.8	3120.1	3123.4	3126.6	3129.9	3133.2	3136.5	3139.8	3143.0	3146.3
96	3149.6	3152.9	3156.2	3159.4	3162.7	3166.0	3169.3	3172.6	3175.9	3179.1
97	3182.4	3185.7	3189.0	3192.3	3195.5	3198.8	3202.1	3205.4	3208.7	3211.9
98	3215.2	3218.5	3221.8	3225.1	3228.3	3231.6	3234.9	3238.2	3241.5	3244.8
99	3248.0	3251.3	3254.6	3257.9	3261.2	3264.4	3267.7	3271.0	3274.3	3277.6
100	3280.8									

TABLE 8. CENTIMETRES TO INCHES

1 centimetre = 0.393701 inches

[illegible]

TABLE 9. KILOMETRES TO STATUTE MILES

1 kilometre = 0.621372 miles

[illegible]

1 square kilometre = 0.386103 square miles

[illegible]

1 cubic metre = 35.3148 cubic feet

[illegible]

1 metric ton = 0.984207 ton

[illegible]

1 quintal per hectare = 0.0398294 ton per acre

	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
..	..	0°3983	0°7966	0°11949	0°15932	0°19915	0°23898	0°27881	0°31864	0°35846	..
1	0°39829	0°43812	0°47795	0°51778	0°55761	0°59744	0°63727	0°67710	0°71693	0°75676	1
2	0°79659	0°83642	0°87625	0°91608	0°95591	0°99574	1°03556	1°07539	1°11522	1°15505	2
3	1°19488	1°23471	1°27454	1°31437	1°35420	1°39401	1°43386	1°47369	1°51352	1°55335	3
4	1°59318	1°63305	1°67283	1°71266	1°75249	1°79232	1°83215	1°87198	1°91181	1°95164	4
5	1°99147	2°03130	2°07113	2°11096	2°15079	2°19062	2°23045	2°27028	2°31011	2°34993	5
6	2°38976	2°42959	2°46942	2°50925	2°54908	2°58891	2°62874	2°66857	2°70840	2°74823	6
7	2°78806	2°82789	2°86772	2°90755	2°94738	2°98721	3°02703	3°06686	3°10669	3°14652	7
8	3°18635	3°22618	3°26601	3°30584	3°34567	3°38550	3°42533	3°46516	3°50499	3°54482	8
9	3°58465	3°62448	3°66431	3°70413	3°74396	3°78379	3°82362	3°86345	3°90328	3°94311	9
10	3°98294								3°90328		10

TABLE 19. DEGREES CENTIGRADE TO DEGREES FAHRENHEIT

1° Centigrade = 1.8° Fahrenheit

<i>Centigrade minus</i>										
	-0	-1	-2	-3	-4	-5	-6	-7	-8	-9
-2	-4.0	-5.8	-7.6	-9.4	-11.2	-13.0	-14.8	-16.6	-18.4	-20.2
-1	14.0	12.2	10.4	8.6	6.8	5.0	3.2	1.4	-0.4	-2.2
..	32.0	30.2	28.4	26.6	24.8	23.0	21.2	19.4	17.6	15.8
..	32.0	33.8	35.6	37.4	39.2	41.0	42.8	44.6	46.4	48.2
+ 1	50.0	51.8	53.6	55.4	57.2	59.0	60.8	62.6	64.4	66.2
+ 2	68.0	69.8	71.6	73.4	75.2	77.0	78.8	80.6	82.4	84.2
+ 3	86.0	87.8	89.6	91.4	93.2	95.0	96.8	98.6	100.4	102.2
+ 4	104.0	105.8	107.6	109.4	111.2	113.0	114.8	116.6	118.4	120.2
+ 5	122.0	123.8	125.6	127.4	129.2	131.0	132.8	134.6	136.4	138.2
+ 6	140.0	141.8	143.6	145.4	147.2	149.0	150.8	152.6	154.4	156.2
+ 7	158.0	159.8	161.6	163.4	165.2	167.0	168.8	170.6	172.4	174.2
+ 8	176.0	177.8	179.6	181.4	183.2	185.0	186.8	188.6	190.4	192.2
+ 9	194.0	195.8	197.6	199.4	201.2	203.0	204.8	206.6	208.4	210.2
+ 10	212.0									
<i>Centigrade plus</i>										
	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
+ 1										
+ 2										
+ 3										
+ 4										
+ 5										
+ 6										
+ 7										
+ 8										
+ 9										
+ 10										

TABLE 20. PRESSURE: EQUIVALENTS OF MILLIBARS, MILLIMETRES OF MERCURY, AND INCHES OF MERCURY AT 32° F. IN LATITUDE 45°

Mercury in.	Milli- bars	Mercury mm.	Mercury in.	Milli- bars	Mercury mm.	Mercury in.	Milli- bars	Mercury mm.	Mercury in.	Milli- bars	Mercury mm.
27.02	915	686.3	27.82	942	706.6	28.62	969	726.8	29.41	996	747.1
27.05	916	687.1	27.85	943	707.3	28.65	970	727.6	29.44	997	747.8
27.08	917	687.8	27.88	944	708.1	28.67	971	728.3	29.47	998	748.6
27.11	918	688.6	27.91	945	708.8	28.70	972	729.1	29.50	999	749.3
27.14	919	689.3	27.94	946	709.6	28.73	973	729.8	29.53	1,000	750.1
27.17	920	690.1	27.97	947	710.3	28.76	974	730.6	29.56	1,001	750.8
27.20	921	690.8	28.00	948	711.1	28.79	975	731.3	29.59	1,002	751.6
27.23	922	691.6	28.03	949	711.8	28.82	976	732.1	29.62	1,003	752.3
27.26	923	692.3	28.05	950	712.6	28.85	977	732.8	29.65	1,004	753.1
27.29	924	693.1	28.08	951	713.3	28.88	978	733.6	29.68	1,005	753.8
27.32	925	693.8	28.11	952	714.1	28.91	979	734.3	29.71	1,006	754.6
27.35	926	694.6	28.14	953	714.8	28.94	980	735.1	29.74	1,007	755.3
27.38	927	695.3	28.17	954	715.6	28.97	981	735.8	29.77	1,008	756.1
27.41	928	696.1	28.20	955	716.3	29.00	982	736.6	29.80	1,009	756.8
27.44	929	696.8	28.23	956	717.1	29.03	983	737.3	29.83	1,010	757.6
27.46	930	697.6	28.26	957	717.8	29.06	984	738.1	29.86	1,011	758.3
27.49	931	698.3	28.29	958	718.6	29.09	985	738.8	29.89	1,012	759.1
27.52	932	699.1	28.32	959	719.3	29.12	986	739.6	29.92	1,013	759.8
27.55	933	699.8	28.35	960	720.1	29.15	987	740.3	29.94	1,014	760.6
27.58	934	700.6	28.38	961	720.8	29.18	988	741.1	29.97	1,015	761.3
27.61	935	701.3	28.41	962	721.6	29.21	989	741.8	30.00	1,016	762.1
27.64	936	702.1	28.44	963	722.3	29.24	990	742.6	30.03	1,017	762.8
27.67	937	702.8	28.47	964	723.1	29.26	991	743.3	30.06	1,018	763.6
27.70	938	703.6	28.50	965	723.8	29.29	992	744.1	30.09	1,019	764.3
27.73	939	704.3	28.53	966	724.6	29.32	993	744.8	30.12	1,020	765.1
27.76	940	705.1	28.56	967	725.3	29.35	994	745.6	30.15	1,021	765.8
27.79	941	705.8	28.59	968	726.1	29.38	995	746.3	30.18	1,022	766.6

INDEXES

ALBANIAN is a little-known language of peculiar difficulty to English readers. Moreover, place-names often appear in two forms because the definite article is a suffix. Thus Tiranë is the name of the capital, but Tirana (the form familiar to us) is *the* Tiranë. Qafë e Bejikut is 'Pass of Bejlik', Qafa e Bejikut is 'the pass of Bejlik'. Iballe is one of the northern tribes, whilst Iballja is 'the Iballe (tribe)'. Indexes to topographical or tribal names must, to be helpful, show these two forms, whilst the prevalence of such terms as '*the* river of Arst' (*Lumi i Arstit*), Gulf of Drin (*Pellg i Drinit*), the swamp of Durazzo (Knetë e Durrësit) implies indexing under the appropriate place-name (Arst, Drin, Durrës). A further, and minor, difficulty lies in the fact that the same word often does duty for a tribe, a village, or a topographical feature. For these reasons it is probably more helpful to divide the index into three parts than to attempt to combine topographical names, tribal names, and general subjects, in one, as is usual in these handbooks.

PART I. TOPOGRAPHICAL NAMES

The following examples will show the system employed.

Juban (i)	village, the <i>i</i> adds the definite article if required.
Jubanit, Mal (i) i	(<i>Mal</i> = mountain: <i>Mali</i> = the mountain). Ordinary sequence Mal (i) i Jubanit meaning (The) mountain of Juban.
Palit, Kep (i) i	(<i>Kep</i> = cape: <i>Kepi</i> = the cape). Ordinary sequence Kep (i) i Palit meaning (The) Cape Pali.

Note. A few topographical names referring to features, or places, just across the frontiers are included in this index. For foreign countries, towns, and ports, see Part III.

PART II. TRIBAL NAMES

Berish-ë (-a)	gives the indefinite Berishë and the definite Berisha.
Mazrek (-u)	gives the indefinite Mazrek, and the definite Mazreku.

PART III. GENERAL SUBJECTS

There are no particular difficulties in this case.

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t. = town, v. = village.

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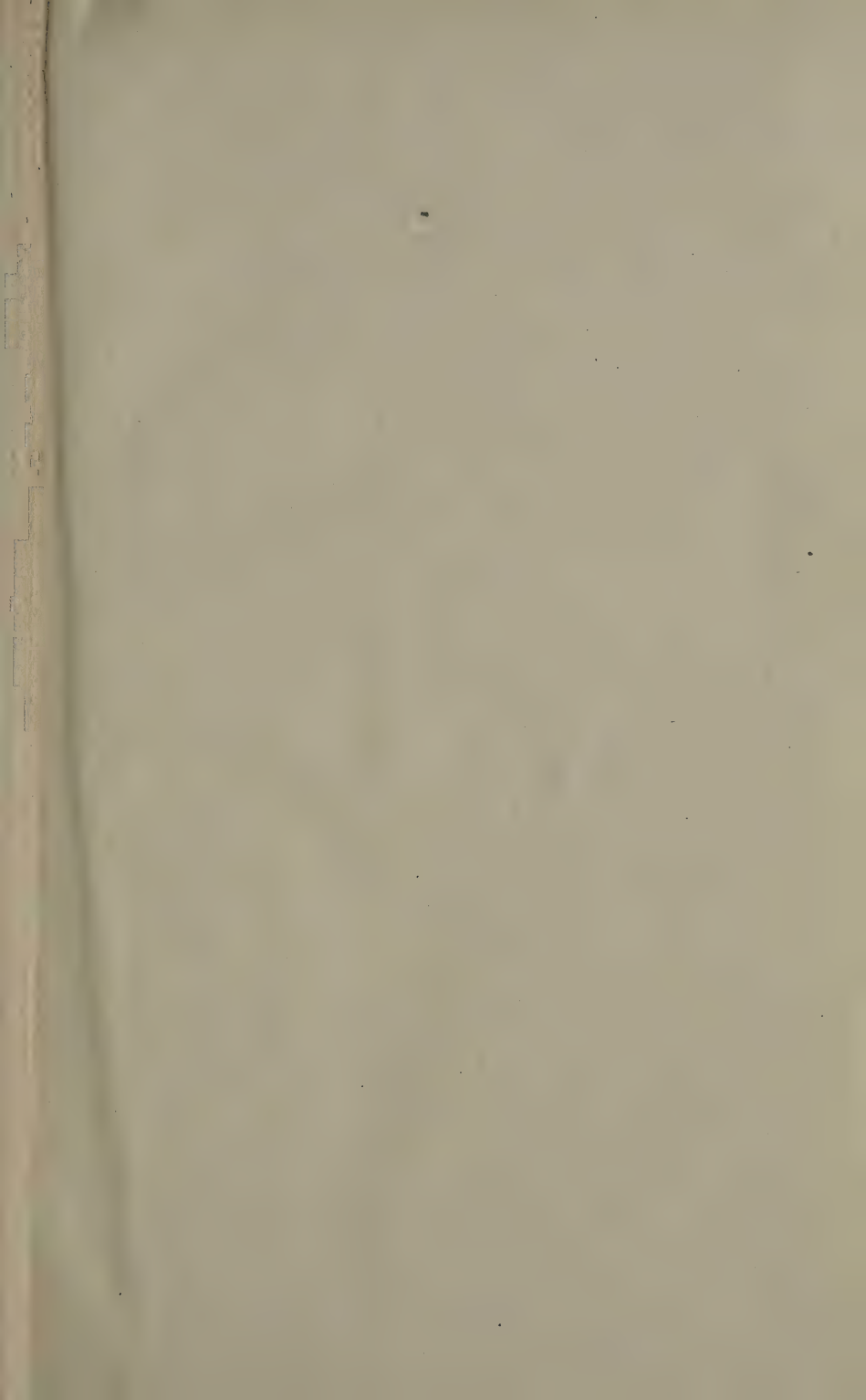
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